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IN a literary collection formed by voluntary contributions, it cannot be expected that all the parts should be equally important, or all the papers equally excellent. The different value, however, of regularly succeeding parts, cannot reflect real disgrace on such a work, unless any particular paper should appear to be absolutely unworthy of publication. We do not entertain so favourable an opinion of the second, as of the first part of this volume*; but, that some of the articles claim for their authors the praise of industry and ability, we do not deny. The first article in this part is the eleventh of the volume.

Art. XI. 'On the Action of Nitre upon Gold and Platina. By Smithson Tennant, Esq. F. R. S.'

These experiments are inconclusive and unimportant.

XII. 'Experiments to determine the Force of fired Gunpowder. By Benjamin, Count of Rumford, F. R. S. M. R. I. A.'

This is a curious and interesting paper. Mr. Robins had concluded from his experiments, that the force of the elastic fluid, generated in the combustion of gunpowder, was 1000 times as great as the mean pressure of the atmosphere. Bernouilli concluded it to be ten times, and count Rumford has (we think) proved it to be fifty thousand times as great. It appears, from our author's experiments, that no gas, which can be separated from gunpowder, is equal to its expansive force in exploding. Some other, more active, agent is therefore necessary; and, in his opinion, this is found in the water reduced to steam by the caloric set at liberty. In the water of

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XXII. p. 13.

crystallisation, and what is otherwise contained in gunpowder, a sufficiency of fluid is found, to explain all the effects.

Count Rumford's experiments are conducted with great ingenuity; particularly those in which the gunpowder is fired, by a red-hot ball communicating the fire through an iron spike, without any access to the air. The force of the gunpowder, which was thus wholly exerted on the tube, appeared immense. When the tube did not burst, no explosion was heard, though a large proportion of caloric was released. The quantity of air which escaped, when the vent was opened, was very inconsiderable; but a hard white mass was found in the tube, which required the assistance of a drill to clear from the iron; and the white hue began almost immediately to change to black. We lament that this substance was not chemically analysed. The most formidable trial of the force of the gunpowder we shall extract.

* In the second experiment, instead of 10 grains of powder, the former charge, the barrel was now quite filled with powder, and the steel hemisphere, with its oiled leather under it, was pressed down upon the end of the barrel by the same weight as was employed for that purpose in the first experiment, namely, a cannon weighing 808 lbs. In order to give a more perfect idea of the result of this important experiment, it may not be amiss to describe more particularly one of the principal parts of the apparatus employed in it, I mean the barrel. This barrel was made of the best hammered iron, and was of uncommon strength. Its length was $2\frac{3}{4}$ inches; and though its diameter was also $2\frac{3}{4}$ inches, the diameter of its bore was no more than $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch, or less than the diameter of a common goose quill. The length of its bore was 2.15 inches. Its diameter being $2\frac{3}{4}$ inches, and the diameter of its bore only $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch, the thickness of the metal was $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch; or, it was 5 times as thick as the diameter of its bore. The charge of powder was extremely small, amounting to but little more than $\frac{1}{10}$ of a cubic inch; not so much as would be required to load a small pocket pistol, and not one-tenth part of the quantity frequently made use of for the charge of a common musket. I should be afraid to relate the result of this experiment, had I not the most indisputable evidence to produce in support of the facts. This inconsiderable quantity of gunpowder, when it was set on fire by the application of the red-hot ball to the vent tube, exploded with such inconceivable force as to burst the barrel asunder in which it was confined, notwithstanding its enormous strength; and with such a loud report as to alarm the whole neighbourhood. It is impossible to describe the

surprise of those who were spectators of this phenomenon. They literally turned pale with affright and astonishment, and it was some time before they could recover themselves. The barrel was not only completely burst asunder, but the two halves of it were thrown upon the ground in different directions: one of them fell close by my feet, as I was standing near the machinery to observe more accurately the result of the experiment. Though I thought it possible that the weight might be raised, and that the generated elastic vapour would make its escape, yet the bursting of the barrel was totally unexpected by me. It was a new lesson to teach me caution in these dangerous pursuits.' P. 253.

Count Rumford afterwards endeavours 'to determine the expansive force of the elastic vapour, generated in the combustion of gunpowder, in its various states of condensation, to ascertain the ratio of its elasticity to its density, and to measure the utmost force of this fluid, in its most dense state.' This he has done in a series of accurate experiments; and the relation of the density to the elasticity is expressed by a kind of hyperbolic curve. If we represent the density as equal to x , and the elasticity $= y$, this curve will be the locus of the equation, expressing the relation of x to y . As this curve is convex towards the horizontal line, the ratio of y to x must be continually increasing. In these experiments, the utmost force falls short of what it seemed to be in the former, viz. 54.752 atmospheres; and the value of y seems to be no more than 39.346 atmospheres. But this number, from the event of the experiments themselves, is too low; for a loud report was heard, which shows that a part of the force was lost. We have calculated from the ratio of the different weights in these experiments, when a loud report was heard, and when the weight was just raised; and the result made y equal to 43.796 atmospheres.

Some other experiments are added, which show that the effects of gunpowder are not always uniform; but the limits of these irregularities are at no great distance. The count also endeavours to explain the cause, why fire-arms do not more frequently burst when the expansion of the powder is so great. This, in his opinion, is partly because much of the powder remains unconsumed, and partly because there is some loss of force from the windage, in consequence of the ball not exactly fitting the bore. The first cause is well known; and too much time is employed in the proof: the second is equally obvious, and has been often noticed. The first is best remedied, by shooting the flame of a smaller charge through that of the gun, and thus firing the whole charge at once; the

second, by rendering that part of the bore, where the ball rests on the powder, conical. The paper concludes with a computation of the water that exists in gunpowder, and the force of the steam which it produces. These are fully sufficient to account for the most violent explosions.

XIII. 'A third Catalogue of the comparative Brightness of the Stars; with an introductory Account of an Index to Mr. Flamsteed's Observations of the fixed Stars contained in the second Volume of the *Historia Cœlestis*. To which are added, several useful Results derived from that Index. By William Herschel, LL. D. F. R. S.'

The index to Mr. Flamsteed's observations is a work of labour and utility. Its object is to direct the astronomer from the British catalogue, to the original observations on which the catalogue was founded. This was absolutely necessary, if, in a review of the heavens, we wished to know whether any star was lost or changed in its lustre, or whether, from inaccuracy or accident, it was not sought in its proper place. The following remarks, from the 'additions to the first catalogue,' are important.

'65 (Aquarii) has not been observed by Flamsteed; notwithstanding which we find it inserted in my first catalogue, where its relative brightness is given. It should be considered that, in the first place, several stars of which there are no observations in the second volume of Flamsteed's works, and which are, nevertheless, inserted in the British catalogue, such for instance as θ and ι Draconis, are well known to exist in the heavens. Now whether they were put into the catalogue from observations that are not in the second volume, or taken from other catalogues, it so happens that observations of them cannot be found. Therefore the want of a former observation by Flamsteed, is not sufficient to prove that a star does not exist. In the next place it should be recollected, that the method used to ascertain the stars in estimating their brightness, is not so accurate, as to point out with great precision the absolute situation of a star; and that, consequently, another star which happens to be not far from the place where the catalogue points out the star we look for, may be taken for it; especially when there are no neighbouring stars of the British catalogue that may induce us to exert uncommon attention in ascertaining the identity of such a star. Mayer, however, has an observation of 65 Aquarii in his zodiacal catalogue, No. 932, which puts the existence of the star out of doubt.' P. 298.

XIV. 'An Account of the Means employed to obtain an overflowing Well. In a Letter to the Right Honourable Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. K. B. P. R. S. from Mr. Benjamin Vulhamy.'

We are not acquainted with the situation of Norland house, where this well was sunk; but, from the account, it is probably on the eastern coast, certainly where the sea has formerly overflowed. The well was sunk to the depth of 236 feet, and a tube was driven twenty-four feet lower. This passed the original rock which covered the spring. The difficulties arising from the immense quantities of sand brought up by the water, and from other causes, were surmounted by great perseverance; and an overflowing well was at last produced.

XV. 'Observations of the changeable Brightness of the Satellites of Jupiter, and of the Variation in their apparent Magnitudes; with a Determination of the Time of their rotatory Motions on their Axes. To which is added, a Measure of the Diameter of the second Satellite, and an Estimate of the comparative Size of all the four. By William Herschel, LL.D. F.R.S.'

The colours of the satellites of Jupiter differ, as the atmospheres are more dense or rare, or as the body of each reflects light more or less copiously. The first is white, but at some times more intensely so than at others; the second is white, bluish, and ash-coloured; the third always white, of different intensities; the fourth dusky, and occasionally reddish.

XVI. 'Farther Experiments and Observations on the Affections and Properties of Light. By Henry Brougham, Jun. Esq. Communicated by Sir Charles Blagden, Knt. Sec. R.S.'

We noticed the first part of this paper in the nineteenth volume of our new arrangement. Some of the experiments here mentioned will, we think, admit a different explanation; and, as light is now known to be a chemical body, the term *ray* is exceptionable. We shall, as in the former instance, give our author's summary.

'*Proposition I.* The sun's light consists of parts which differ in degree of *refrangity*, *reflexity*, *inflexity*, and *deflexity*; and the rays which are most flexible have also the greatest *refrangity*, *reflexity*, and *flexity*; or are most *refrangile*, *reflexile*, and *flexile*.

'*Proposition II.* Rays of compound light passing through the spheres of flexion and falling on the bending body, are not separated by their flexibility, either in their approach to, or return from the body.

'*Proposition III.* The colours of thin and those of thick plates are precisely of the same nature; differing only in the thickness of the plate which forms them.

'*Proposition IV.* The colours of plates are caused by flexion, and may be produced without any transmission whatever.

'*Proposition V.* All the consequences deducible from the theory *a priori* are found to follow in fact.

‘ *Proposition VI.* The common fringes by flexion (called hitherto the “*three fringes*”), are found to be as numerous as the others.

‘ *Proposition VII.* The unusual image by Iceland crystal is caused by some power inherent in its particles, different from refraction, reflexion, and flexion.

‘ *Proposition VIII.* This power resembles refraction in its degree of action on different rays; but it resembles flexion within the body, in not taking place at a distance from it, in acting as well on perpendicular as on oblique rays, and in its sphere or space of exertion moving with the particles which it attends.’ P. 384.

XVII. ‘On Gouty and Urinary Concretions. By William Hyde Wollaston, M. D. F. R. S.’

The gouty concrete, in Dr. Wollaston’s opinion, consists of lithic acid and volatile alkali; but we strongly suspect that what he calls lithic acid is a concrete of an earthy and an ammoniacal salt, probably with some excess of acid. We perceive too many marks of hasty conclusions from trifling experiments, to trust implicitly to his analysis. The fusible calculus consists of the common stone united with small sparkling crystals, whose form is that of a short trilateral prism, having one angle a right angle, and the other two equal, terminating in a pyramid of four or six sides. The crystals are formed of phosphoric acid, magnesia, and volatile alkali. The stone contains phosphorated lime, and generally some lithic acid. The smoother sorts of calculus consist, in our author’s opinion, of lime united with the acids of sugar and of phosphorus: the rougher specimens have generally some lithic acid in their interstices. What is called, in this paper, the ‘bone earth calculus,’ is of a pale brown, so smooth as to appear almost polished; it is laminated, and the laminae do not closely adhere. The substance is wholly phosphorated lime. Calculi, from the prostate gland, consist of lime neutralised by the phosphoric acid, ‘tinged with the secretion’ of the glandular organ. This earthy salt is also said to be the basis of the sand, sometimes found in the pineal gland; while ossifications of the arteries, and the incrustations of the teeth, have a small excess of lime. Some conclusions drawn from these experiments, applicable to the treatment of persons affected by the different calculi, follow: but these are vague and unsatisfactory.

XVIII. ‘Experiments on carbonated hydrogenous Gas; with a View to determine whether Carbon be a simple or a compound Substance. By Mr. William Henry. Communicated by Mr. Thomas Henry, F. R. S.’

We must commence our account of this article with a circumstance that has occasioned some inconvenience; we mean

the reference to the *volume* of the Transactions, which of late have been distinguished by the *years* only. Dr. Austin's opinion, which is the subject of Mr. Henry's examination, occurs in the 80th volume—that for the year 1790—and was noticed in the LXXth volume of our Review (p. 609). Heavy inflammable air is known to be a solution of charcoal in hydrogen, and is therefore called carbonated hydrogenous gas. On passing the electric shock through this air, Dr. Austin found it considerably dilated, seemingly from the production of additional hydrogen, which he supposed to be the consequence of a decomposition of the carbon.

We shall give an account of Mr. Henry's experiments on this subject in his own words; premising only, that the first conclusion is drawn from Dr. Austin's paper.

‘ 1. Carbonated hydrogenous gas, in its ordinary state, is permanently dilated by the electric shock to more than twice its original volume; and as light inflammable air is the only substance we are acquainted with, that is capable of occasioning so great an expansion, and of exhibiting the phenomena that appear on firing the electrified gas with oxygen, we may ascribe the dilatation to the production of hydrogenous gas.

‘ 2. The hydrogenous gas evolved by this process does not arise from the decomposition of charcoal; because the same quantity of that substance is contained in the gas after, as before electrization.

‘ 3. The hydrogenous gas proceeds from decomposed water; because when this fluid is abstracted as far as possible from the carbonated hydrogenous gas, before submitting it to the action of electricity, the dilatation cannot be extended beyond one-sixth of its usual amount.

‘ 4. The decompohent of the water is not a metallic substance, because carbonated hydrogenous gas is expanded when in contact only with a glass tube and gold, a metal which has no power of separating water into its formative principles.

‘ 5. The oxygen of the water (when the electric fluid is passed through carbonated hydrogenous gas, that holds this substance in solution), combines with the carbon, and forms carbonic acid. This production of carbonic acid, therefore, adds to the dilatation occasioned by the evolution of hydrogenous gas.

‘ 6. There is not, by the action of the electric matter on carbonated hydrogenous gas, any generation of azotic gas.

‘ 7. Carbon, it appears, therefore, from the united evidence of these facts, is still to be considered as an elementary body; that is, as a body with the composition of which we are unacquainted, but which may nevertheless yield to the labours of some future and more successful analyst.’ P. 414.

XIX. 'Observations and Experiments on the Colour of Blood. By William Charles Wells, M. D. F. R. S.'

Dr. Wells chiefly rests on the system of Mr. Delaval, which Dr. Bancroft has shown to be, on the whole, unfounded. The original author of this doctrine was Zucchius, whose name, from accident and neglect, has been undeservedly forgotten. Our author takes no more from Mr. Delaval, than may be fairly granted—the reflection of light from an opake ground, *through* coloured particles. His application of this point, however, seems to be erroneous. When air or neutral salts render the blood more florid, they do not, in his opinion, produce any chemical change in it, but only furnish opake bases for the reflection of more light; and this idea he endeavours to support by different experiments. But we do not see how he can avoid the conclusion, that, according to his system, the more opake a body is, the brighter must be its colour; for, in almost every instance, the fluid is rendered opake. That the colour of the blood is produced by iron, few now believe; and it did not require many arguments to confute the assertion. The doctor supposes its colour to be derived from the 'peculiar organisation of the animal matter of one of its parts.' It is certainly occasioned by the structure, and probably by the form, of the red globules themselves. Some miscellaneous observations on the colour of the blood follow.

XX. 'An Account of the Trigonometrical Survey, carried on in the Years 1795 and 1796, by Order of the Marquis Cornwallis, Master General of the Ordnance. By Colonel Edward Williams, Captain William Mudge, and Mr. Isaac Dalby. Communicated by the Duke of Richmond, F. R. S.'

We are glad to find this important national work continued: the details are not capable of abridgment. The plans of the principal triangles form a proper addition.

The volume, as usual, terminates with the list of presents and the names of the donors.

The Works of Horatio Walpole, Earl of Orford. (Continued from p. 132.)

WE renew, with great pleasure, our survey of the works of this interesting author. In the beginning of the fourth volume, we find the Catalogue of Engravers. This performance has long been known, and its merits have been properly appreciated.

The next piece is the letter to the editor of Chatterton's miscellanies. The controversy respecting Rowley is now almost forgotten, though it strongly engaged the attention of

the public when it arose. It is necessary to observe, that the editor above-mentioned accuses Mr. Walpole of treating the young aspiring poet with contempt and neglect, and insinuates that his melancholy catastrophe was, in part, occasioned by this behaviour. The facts are these. Chatterton communicated some poems, pretendedly ancient, to Mr. Walpole, with an anxious wish, that he would take *them* and *himself* under his patronage; yet he did not send them as his own property: they were said to belong to a friend. Mr. Walpole, when he replied, certainly had not discovered the deception. His answer, first published in the European Magazine, is sufficiently civil; and he almost promises to be the editor. The deceit, however, could not long escape him. He wrote no more to Chatterton, who at last demanded his papers when Mr. Walpole was setting out for Paris. As, on this account, they were not sent, an indignant letter was written; and the manuscripts were immediately delivered without a reply. This happened two years before the death of Chatterton. The 'Letter to the Editor' is excellent; but it is written with too great an affectation of dignity. We perceive too much of that dignity in the next contention, respecting Rousseau and Hume. Our author treats the Parisian literati with great contempt; and many deserved it. We shall, however, select Mr. Hume's reply; for, if it cannot be said '*tua res agitur*,' yet this short defence of literary men should not be wholly overlooked.

'You see I venture still to join these two epithets' (virtuous and philosophical) 'as inseparable and almost synonymous; though you seem inclined to regard them almost as incompatible. And here I have a strong inclination to say a few words in vindication both of myself and of my friends, venturing even to comprehend you in the number. What new prepossession has seized you to beat in so outrageous a manner your nurses of mount Helicon, and to join the outcry of the ignorant multitude against science and literature? For my part, I can scarce acknowledge any other ground of distinction between one age and another, between one nation and another, than their different progress in learning and the arts. I do not say between one man and another; because the qualities of the heart and temper and natural understanding are the most essential to the personal character; but being, I suppose, almost equal among nations and ages, do not serve to throw a peculiar lustre on any. You blame France for its fond admiration of men of genius; and there may no doubt be, in particular instances, a great ridicule in these affectations: but the sentiment in general was equally conspicuous in ancient Greece, in Rome during its flourishing period, in modern Italy, and even perhaps in England about the beginning of this century. If the case be now otherwise, it is what

we are to lament and be ashamed of. Our enemies will only infer, that we are a nation which was once at best but half civilized, and is now relapsing fast into barbarism, ignorance, and superstition. I beg you also to consider the great difference in point of morals between uncultivated and civilized ages.—But I find I am launching out insensibly into an immense ocean of common-place; I cut the matter therefore short, by declaring it as my opinion, that if you had been born a barbarian, and had every day cooked your dinner of horseflesh by riding on it fifty miles between your breech and the shoulder of your horse, you had certainly been an obliging, good-natured, friendly man; but at the same time, that reading, conversation, and travel have detracted nothing from those virtues, and have made a considerable addition of other valuable and agreeable qualities to them.' Vol. iv. p. 268.

This dispute would lead us too far. Mr. Walpole's share in it was a little *jeu d'esprit*. He wrote such a letter to Rousseau, as the king of Prussia might be supposed to have sent; and this occasioned no inconsiderable clamour. As we do not know that the letter has appeared in an English dress, we will translate it.

'MY DEAR JOHN JAMES,

'You have renounced Geneva, the place of your birth; you have subjected yourself to an expulsion from Switzerland;—a country which is so highly celebrated in your writings;—and France has outlawed you. Come therefore into my dominions: I admire your talents; I am amused with your fancies, which, by the way, engage you too much and too long. You must endeavour, at last, to be prudent and happy. You have made sufficient noise by singularities, not perfectly consistent with the character of a great man. Show your enemies that you have a little common sense; and this will vex *them*, without injuring *you*. My kingdom will afford you a quiet retreat. I wish you well, and will do you service, if you will accept it; but, if you obstinately reject my assistance, I shall say nothing of it. If you persist in exhausting your genius to discover new misfortunes, let me know what kind you would prefer. I am a king, and can persecute you to your heart's content; and, what your enemies will not do, I will desist from my persecution of you, when you no longer think it honourable to sustain it.' Vol. iv. p. 250.

The 'Reminiscences,' which follow, are light sketches of political incidents and other circumstances, in the manner of the French *Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire*. From these reminiscences, we will offer some extracts.

The following story is not generally known; and we may add, that it is scarcely credible.

'On the death of George the first, queen Caroline found in his

cabinet a proposal of the earl of Berkeley, then, I think, first lord of the admiralty, to seize the prince of Wales, and convey him to America, whence he should never be heard of more. This detestable project, copied probably from the earl of Falmouth's offer to Charles the second with regard to his queen, was in the handwriting of Charles Stanhope, elder brother of the earl of Harrington; and so deep was the impression deservedly made on the mind of George the second by that abominable paper, that all the favour of lord Harrington, when secretary of state, could never obtain the smallest boon to his brother, though but the subordinate transcriber. George the first was too humane to listen to such an atrocious deed. It was not very kind to the conspirators to leave such an instrument behind him;—and if virtue and conscience will not check bold bad men from paying court by detestable offers, the king's carelessness or indifference in such an instance ought to warn them of the little gratitude that such machinations can inspire or expect.' Vol. iv. p. 289.

The favour of queen Caroline to sir Robert Walpole was strongly displayed on the accession of George II.

' The unexpected death of George the first on his road to Hanover was instantly notified by lord Townshend, secretary of state, who attended his majesty, to his brother sir Robert Walpole, who as expeditiously was the first to carry the news to the successor and hail him king. The next step was, to ask who his majesty would please should draw his speech to the council—"Sir Spencer Compton," replied the new monarch.—The answer was decisive—and implied sir Robert's dismissal. Sir Spencer Compton was speaker of the house of commons, and treasurer, I think, at that time to his royal highness, who by that first command implied his intention of making sir Spencer his prime minister. He was a worthy man, of exceedingly grave formality, but of no parts—as his conduct immediately proved. The poor gentleman was so little qualified to accommodate himself to the grandeur of the moment, and to conceive how a new sovereign should address himself to his ministers, and he had also been so far from meditating to supplant the premier, that in his distress it was to sir Robert himself he had recourse, and whom he besought to make the draught of the king's speech for him. The new queen, a better judge than her husband of the capacities of the two candidates, and who had silently watched for a moment proper for overturning the new designations, did not lose a moment in observing to the king how prejudicial it would be to his affairs, to prefer the minister in possession a man in whose own judgment his predecessor was the fittest person to execute his office. From that moment there was no more question of sir Spencer Compton as prime minister. He was created an earl, soon received the garter, and became president of that council, at the head of which he was much fitter to sit than to di-

rect. Fourteen years afterwards he again was nominated by the same prince to replace sir Robert as first lord of the treasury, on the latter's forced resignation; but not as prime minister, the conduct of affairs being soon ravished from him by that dashing genius the earl of Granville, who reduced him to a cypher for the little year in which he survived, and in which his incapacity had been obvious.

'The queen, impatient to destroy all hopes of change, took the earliest opportunity of declaring her own sentiments. The instance I shall cite will be a true picture of courtiers. Their majesties had removed from Richmond to their temporary palace in Leicester-fields on the very evening of their receiving notice of their accession to the crown; and the next day all the nobility and gentry in town crowded to kiss their hands: my mother amongst the rest, who, sir Spencer Compton's designation, and not its evaporation, being known, could not make her way between the scornful backs and elbows of her late devotees, nor could approach nearer to the queen than the third or fourth row:—but no sooner was she descried by her majesty, than the queen said aloud, "There I am sure I see a friend!"—The torrent divided and shrunk to either side; "and as I came away," said my mother, "I might have walked over their heads, if I had pleased."

'The pre-occupation of the queen in favour of Walpole must be explained. He had early discovered, that in whatever gallantries George prince of Wales indulged or affected, even the person of his princess was dearer to him than any charms in his mistresses: and though Mrs. Howard (afterwards lady Suffolk) was openly his declared favourite, as avowedly as the duchess of Kendal was his father's, sir Robert's sagacity discerned that the power would be lodged with the wife, not with the mistress; and he not only devoted himself to the princess, but totally abstained from even visiting Mrs. Howard.' Vol. iv. p. 294.

Of the unjustifiable suppression of the will of George I. we meet with this *reminiscence*.

'At the first council held by the new sovereign, Dr. Wake, archbishop of Canterbury, produced the will of the late king, and delivered it to the successor, expecting it would be opened and read in council. On the contrary, his majesty put it into his pocket, and stalked out of the room, without uttering a word on the subject. The poor prelate was thunderstruck, and had not the presence of mind or the courage to demand the testament's being opened, or at least to have it registered. No man present chose to be more hardy than the person to whom the deposit had been trusted—perhaps none of them immediately conceived the possible violation of so solemn an act so notoriously existent. Still, as the king never mentioned the will more, whispers only by degrees in-

formed the public, that the will was burnt, at least that its injunctions were never fulfilled.

What the contents were was never ascertained. Report said, that forty thousand pounds had been bequeathed to the duchess of Kendal; and more vague rumours spoke of a large legacy to the queen of Prussia, daughter of the late king. Of that bequest demands were afterwards said to have been frequently and roughly made by her son the great king of Prussia, between whom and his uncle subsisted much inveteracy.' Vol. iv. p. 297.

One striking trait of sir Robert Walpole's character appears from incidental particulars in these reminiscences — we mean great sagacity. By observation of the most trifling circumstances, and attentively comparing them with others within his knowledge, he seems to have developed the motives and views of those around him, and consequently was able, at the moment, to adopt the most decisive and judicious mode of conduct. In these recollections, also, the weakness, the caprice, and indiscretion, of Frederic prince of Wales, are, in several instances, pointed out. The character of the queen we shall present to our readers.

Queen Caroline was said to have been very handsome at her marriage, soon after which she had the small-pox; but was little marked by it, and retained a most pleasing countenance. It was full of majesty or mildness as she pleased, and her penetrating eyes expressed whatever she had a mind they should. Her voice too was captivating, and her hands beautifully small, plump and graceful. Her understanding was uncommonly strong; and so was her resolution. From their earliest connection she had determined to govern the king, and deserved to do so; for her submission to his will was unbounded, her sense much superior, and his honour and interest always took place of her own: so that her love of power, that was predominant, was dearly bought, and rarely ill-employed. She was ambitious too of fame; but, shackled by her devotion to the king, she seldom could pursue that object. She wished to be a patroness of learned men: but George had no respect for them or their works; and her majesty's own taste was not very exquisite, nor did he allow her time to cultivate any studies. Her generosity would have displayed itself, for she valued money but as the instrument of her good purposes: but he stinted her alike in almost all her passions; and though she wished for nothing more than to be liberal, she bore the imputation of his avarice, as she did of others of his faults. Often when she had made prudent and proper promises of preferment, and could not persuade the king to comply, she suffered the breach of word to fall on her, rather than reflect on him. Though his affection and confidence in her were implicit, he lived in dread of being supposed to be governed by her; and that silly parade was extended even to the most private moments of

business with my father : whenever he entered, the queen rose, curtsied and retired, or offered to retire. Sometimes the king condescended to bid her stay—on both occasions she and sir Robert had previously settled the business to be discussed. Sometimes the king would quash the proposal in question ; and yield after re-talking it over with her—but then he boasted to sir Robert that he himself had better considered it.

‘ One of the queen’s delights was the improvement of the garden at Richmond ; and the king believed she paid for all with her own money—nor would he ever look at her intended plans, saying, he did not care how she flung away her own revenue. He little suspected the aids sir Robert furnished to her from the treasury. When she died, she was indebted twenty thousand pounds to the king.

‘ Her learning was superficial ; her knowledge of languages as little accurate. The king, with a bluff Westphalian accent, spoke English correctly. The queen’s chief study was divinity ; and she had rather weakened her faith than enlightened it. She was at least not orthodox ; and her confidante lady Sundon, an absurd and pompous simpleton, swayed her countenance towards the less-believing clergy. The queen however was so sincere at her death, that when archbishop Potter was to administer the sacrament to her, she declined taking it, very few persons being in the room. When the prelate retired, the courtiers in the anti-room crowded round him, crying, “ My lord, has the queen received ? ” His grace artfully eluded the question, only saying most devoutly, “ her majesty was in a heavenly disposition ”—and the truth escaped the public.

‘ She suffered more unjustly by declining to see her son, the prince of Wales, to whom she sent her blessing and forgiveness—but conceiving the extreme distress it would lay on the king, should he thus be forced to forgive so impenitent a son, or to banish him again if once recalled, she heroically preferred a meritorious husband to a worthless child.

‘ The queen’s greatest error was too high an opinion of her own address and art : she imagined that all who did not dare to contradict her, were imposed upon ; and she had the additional weakness of thinking that she could play off many persons without being discovered. That mistaken humour, and at other times her hazarding very offensive truths, made her many enemies : and her duplicity in fomenting jealousies between the ministers, that each might be more dependent on herself, was no sound wisdom.’
Vol. iv. p. 304.

Various minute and interesting facts occur in this part of the volume, which we shall forbear to notice, as we would excite curiosity rather than gratify it. We may add, that the readers of French memoirs will here find anecdotes much more

interesting, and related with more *naïveté* and propriety, than in their favourite volumes.

The hieroglyphic tales, which follow, were intended by Mr. Walpole for publication. He styles them whimsical trifles, and observes that they were designed 'to vary the stale and beaten class of stories and novels, which, though works of invention, are almost always devoid of imagination.' It is difficult to describe them: they are fairy tales, still more whimsical than those which have received that title; and the adventures are as surprising as those of Gulliver or the baron Munchausen. In the preface, and in the tales, are some satirical allusions to modern literature; and the whole will afford, to many readers, no inconsiderable entertainment.

Parodies of three of lord Chesterfield's letters to his son are introduced by some farcastic observations. As the earl, in his 'multitudinous' precepts, forgot generosity, patriotism, charity, and friendship, and confined himself to the graces, the author thinks the instructions will do as well, perhaps better, for a lady; and, in his preface, runs over the outline of the system with this view, and exposes it with success.

The remarks on Dr. Johnson's writings are short, but full of good sense. 'Strange Occurrences, being a continuation of Baker's Chronicle,' are only a few remarkable events. One is, that the descendants of the first Charles and Oliver Cromwell intermarried in the fourth generation: another we shall select.

'William Pitt, lord Chatham, was a second son, and became prime minister of England. His rival and antagonist was Henry Fox lord Holland, a second son likewise. Lord Holland's second son Charles Fox, and lord Chatham's second son William Pitt, are now rivals and antagonists: Fox has as great or greater parts than his father, with much better elocution, and equal power of reasoning. Mr. Pitt has not the dazzling commanding eloquence of his father, but argues much better. Perhaps there is not on record an instance of two statesmen who were rivals, being succeeded in equal rivalry by their sons—certainly not with so many concurrent circumstances.' Vol. iv. p. 366.

The 'Detached Thoughts' are not singular or striking; and the miscellaneous verses collected by Mr. Walpole himself—the scattered remains of his earlier productions—do not add greatly to his literary character.

The letters between Mr. Walpole and Mr. West conclude the fourth volume. They were school-fellows closely attached to each other; and their epistolary correspondence sports with all the playful levity of youth. Mr. West's life was short, and was tinged with the pale hue of sickness, which did not infect his mind. He possessed the tenderness of heart

and delicacy of feeling, so often accompanying infirm health; and his transitory gaiety seems an exertion ill suited to his constitution. In these respects - Mr. Walpole resembled him; but our author, with a tender habit, exceeded his eightieth year. In this correspondence we find nothing which would greatly interest our readers, if separated from the rest. Some of the letters were written from the continent, and contain accounts of trivial adventures, rather than profound or recondite remarks.

(To be continued.)

Biographical, Literary, and Political Anecdotes, of several of the most eminent Persons of the present Age. Never before printed. With an Appendix; consisting of original, explanatory, and scarce Papers. By the Author of Anecdotes of the late Earl of Chatham. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman. 1797.

AT a time when anecdotes, particularly those of distinguished political characters, are eagerly read, a work like the present is calculated to excite attention; and, when we recollect that the former anecdotes, published by the editor of the work before us, were in general true, we may reasonably expect a continuance of the same regard to veracity.

Many of the persons to whom the anecdotes relate, are dead; but many are still in existence. In the arrangement of the individuals, no regularity is observed: the accounts are loosely written; and superfluous matter is sometimes introduced.

In the first chapter, the duke of Grafton is brought forward: but nothing new is mentioned with regard to that nobleman. Some novel particulars, however, relative to the author of the letters of Junius, are given in this chapter. It is affirmed, that he was a native of Ireland, and was educated at Trinity college, Dublin; that he was not in affluent circumstances, and yet did not write for pecuniary aid; that he did not follow any particular profession; that, after a considerable interval from the cessation of his celebrated letters, he wrote eighteen political essays under the title of the Whig; and that he died at Madras, to which settlement he had accompanied earl Macartney. We cannot vouch for the truth of these statements; and, as the mention of the real name of the person who assumed the signature of Junius is not a part of the information, the whole may be deemed problematical.

Of the duke of Leeds little is said; and the chapter which professes to relate to the duke of Dorset, scarcely contains a syllable besides the unimportant intelligence, that the 'noble duke has more than once recommended' the publication of a

complete 'collection of the poems written by the Sackville family.'

The late duke of Rutland is represented as the author of two pamphlets of little merit, written while he was at the university of Cambridge. He is also mentioned as the person whose recommendation, urged in an accidental meeting with sir James Lowther, now earl of Lonsdale, procured for Mr. Pitt his first seat in parliament, in 1780, when he had offered himself at Cambridge without success.

Horace Walpole, the last earl of Orford, is introduced on account of two political tracts which he published in 1763 and 1764, one against the peace and the duty on cider, the other in condemnation of the dismissal of general Conway. His address to the corporation of Lynn, on his declining to be re-elected, is given at full length.

Of the bishop of Hereford it is said, that he

'has shewn himself to be as able a politician as he is a divine. He was early attached to the whigs, whose conduct and principles, when forced from the government by lord Bute, in the year 1762, he defended with zeal and ability.' At that time was published a tract of some celebrity, which was considered to be the manifesto of the tory party, entitled, "A Letter from the Cocoa-Tree to the Country Gentlemen." It consisted chiefly of a severe arraignment of the conduct of the duke of Newcastle, the duke of Devonshire, and the duke of Cumberland; relative to their forming an opposition to the earl of Bute. As this pamphlet might be said to contain the creed of the tories at that time, Dr. Butler judged it to be not less proper than necessary, to oppose to it the creed of the whigs, in another tract, which he entitled, "An Address to the Cocoa-Tree; from a Whig." The closeness of the argument, the strength of the reasoning, the temper and elegance of the language, were all greatly admired. He shewed the principles and conduct of the whigs to be strictly constitutional: and he vindicated the proceedings and opinions of his friends, in a manner so excellent and masterly, as to reflect not less honour upon his own talents, than upon their characters.

'His next tract was called, "A Consultation on the Subject of a Standing Army, held at the King's Arms Tavern, on the 28th of February, 1763." The arguments for and against the measure are well drawn, and apply with peculiar propriety to the period of time in which it was written.' Vol. i. p. 70.

This prelate's delineation of the character of Mr. Legge is better known than his other pieces.

No anecdotes that are new are here related of Charles Townshend; nor is any thing very important communicated respecting Mr. serjeant Adair or sir Grey Cooper, who are the next in order. A short account of the bishop of Ossory

follows, whose defence of lord Howe's conduct during the American war is represented as able and satisfactory.

The 'secret and true history of the Irish octennial bill' is the subject of the next chapter. When the commons of Ireland agreed to the heads of a septennial bill, they did not wish such a measure to be ultimately sanctioned; and therefore they inserted such a preamble, as might induce the king and council of Great-Britain to reject it. By representing it as the undoubted *right* of the Irish to have new parliaments more frequently than before, they knew that they should give disgust to the British ministers, upon whom they intended that the odium of the rejection of the bill should fall. The latter struck out the preamble, changed the term to eight years, and made such other alterations as, they thought, would render the bill unsuccessful in the house of commons, whose leaders would then become obnoxious to the public. But the people so clamorously demanded the bill, that the members were constrained to agree to it. The effects of the statute, however, have been of little moment in the scale of liberty.

The article concerning sir James Caldwell is not interesting in proportion to its length. We are informed, that

'This gentleman has the honour to stand foremost in the modern history of parliamentary literature. He was the first person who wrote a regular series of parliamentary debates, from memory and a real attendance. These debates are of the house of commons of Ireland, in the first session after the treaty of peace in 1763. These debates are not only written in excellent language, but are allowed to be very correct.' Vol. i. p. 120.

Sir John Dalrymple is treated with severity for his *Memoirs of Great-Britain*, as having published them for the purpose of stigmatising the characters of supposed patriots.

'This work deserves to be noticed, not more for the baseness of its design, than the falsehood of its contents.' Vol. i. p. 182.

'The design was manifest. It had been premeditated some time: the extraordinary industry shewn in the compilation sufficiently marked it. No event had happened which called for the necessity or propriety of such a work. It was a voluntary labour, undertaken and executed with a view to defame particular characters.

'It was one of lord Mansfield's common and favourite practices to establish facts upon inferences. He conceived that he shewed his ingenuity by this mode of displaying his abilities. And the inference from these papers' [*annexed to the Memoirs*] 'is, that there was a great deal of knavery and villainy among the opponents of Charles the Second: therefore all opponents to a king's measures are rogues and villains.' Vol. i. p. 184.

We must observe, however, that no readers of judgment would draw such an inference, though sir John and his patrons might wish that conclusion to prevail.

Of William earl of Mansfield it is said with truth, that,

‘ In all those political causes concerning the press, in which the crown was party, he was partial in the extreme. His rule of law uniformly was, that the crown was never wrong in those causes. To the liberty of the press he was a sincere and implacable enemy. His definition of this liberty was, a permission to print without a license, what formerly could only be printed with one. In trials for libels, he has been heard to deliver such language from the bench, as ought to have flushed the jury with indignation. In those trials, his invariable practice was, in his charge to the jury, to make a laboured reply to the defendant’s counsel. Will any candid person say this was proper conduct in a judge who ought to be strictly impartial? This is not the language of prejudice—for the truth of it an appeal may safely be made to all those persons who are yet alive, who heard him upon those occasions.’ Vol. i. P. 234.

His support of a popular point against the crown is placed in a true light, in the following passage.

‘ Upon one occasion only he shone as a politician : this was his attack on the suspending and dispensing prerogative, which was undoubtedly made with great ability, but the case may be said to have been more a matter of jurisprudence than politics, and although he gave to his eloquence all the advantages he had acquired by a long exercise, yet the merit of the attack is lessened, when it is recollected that lord Camden had maintained the necessity of a suspending power in a case of imminent danger of famine, which was the fact, and that lord Mansfield warmly embraced this opportunity of upholding a true constitutional doctrine, to gratify his envy and hatred of lord Camden. His motive was founded in personal rancour, not in constitutional. All those who are acquainted with the history of the time will not hesitate to admit this distinction. But the tract which was published, called “ A Speech against the Suspending and Dispensing Prerogative,” and contained all that lord Mansfield advanced in his speech upon this subject in the house of lords, was not written by his lordship, although generally believed to have been his production, nor was he privy to the writing or publication. The pamphlet was written by lord Temple, and lord Lyttelton, and a gentleman who was present at the debate, and states in the form of one speech all the arguments on that side. However, lord Mansfield’s motives may be excused, if the severity of his attack makes ministers more assiduous in their duty, for they had information of the approaching danger, and did not attend to it ; if they had, such attention would have prevented

the necessity of resorting to so violent a remedy.' Vol. i. p. 355.

The account of the lord-chancellor Camden chiefly contains a repetition of old statements; and that of earl Temple is partly borrowed from the 'Anecdotes of the late Earl of Chatham.' Speaking of earl Temple, our author says,

'Few men's characters have been more mistaken, or more misrepresented, than his lordship's. When a great personage said of him, "That he was undoubtedly a great man, but that he loved to embarrass government," he only shewed that he had been misinformed. No man could be more zealously attached to a constitutional government than he was. But he detested, with fervency and sincerity, a government of secrecy, hypocrisy, and treachery.' Vol. ii. p. 28.

That George Grenville, while he was the *ostensible* minister, was guided by the king's *secret* advisers, we have no reason to doubt.

'The principal features of Mr. Grenville's administration are the persecution of Mr. Wilkes, and the oppression of North America: neither of which can, perhaps, strictly be called his own. But it was not until after his death that it was authentically known these measures had not originated with himself; that they had been suggested to him by others—by the confidants of Carlton-house, and the confidants of lord Bute. So true it is, that ministers have often been seduced into paths, without seeing the hand that led them. He had too much of reserve in his temper, and of what the French call *hauteur* in his manner, to open himself freely even to his friends; so that he became his own enemy as to his real disposition, and wholly so in bearing the odium of these measures.' Vol. ii. p. 76.

The unjustifiable scheme of rendering the American colonies the links of a chain of ministerial patronage, is thus developed.

'A plan was recommended by a naval officer from Boston, of new-modelling the governments of that country' [*North-America*]. 'This scheme commenced, in idea, before the conclusion of the peace in 1763. The project was flattering to the minister, because it gave him an immense increase of patronage, and if any cause can be assigned for his preferring Florida to Porto Rico, it must be the further increase of patronage, and making Florida into two governments. A junto of sycophants and confidants, whom lord Bute encouraged, and with whom he principally advised, eagerly embraced this project of distributing the American revenues amongst their relations and dependents.'

'When the peace was concluded, the British army was not

withdrawn. Several pretences were made for keeping it in America; such as an Indian war, and the necessity of having garrisons in the back settlements. The first measure was a division of the country into military districts, with a brigadier-general in each, all of them depending upon the commander in chief, who was totally independent of the civil power.

‘ This scheme of new-modelling the governments in America, in order to increase the power and patronage of the crown, was the sole cause of the war, and the loss of America. It is true, that occasional circumstances were the immediate causes of particular events; but it is always to be remembered, that those circumstances, and every instruction sent to America, from the resignation of Mr. Pitt in the month of October 1761, to the defeat of general Burgoyne in the month of October 1777, originated in the great design of rendering America subservient to the purposes of the minister.

‘ The prominent features of the grand plan were these: first, to raise a revenue in America by act of parliament, to be applied to support an army, to pay a large salary to the governor, another to the lieutenant-governor, salaries to the judges of the law and admiralty: thus, the whole government, executive and judicial, was to be rendered entirely independent of the people, and wholly dependent on the minister. Second, to make a new division of the colonies, to reduce the number of them by making the small ones more extensive, to make them all royal governments, with an aristocracy in each. This order of aristocrats was not intended to be hereditary, but something like the lords of session in Scotland, for life only. But in a little time they would doubtless have become hereditary, like the nobility of France, whose origin is similar. Amherst was the first person who suggested the idea of an American peerage; at one time he had thoughts of being created an American peer, with pretenency of all others.

‘ In order to support this military system, which was only the basis of the plan, it was necessary to create a fund to establish a revenue, which would soon have been followed by a system of corruption. This gave rise to the American stamp act.’ Vol. ii. p. 81.

In the anecdotes of lord George Germain, the writer is too much inclined to palliate the conduct of his lordship at Minden. We agree with him in acquitting the English general of cowardice; but that private resentment which occasioned so gross a neglect of public duty, merited a severe punishment.

When lord George, even after the surrender of earl Cornwallis at York-town, persisted in his ideas of the necessity of a continuance of military coercion, and declared, that the

ruin of Great-Britain would follow the dereliction of her sovereignty over the colonies, he thought that he

‘ delivered the opinion of a much greater authority than his own. But he was not entrusted with the real secret. There were other persons who were honoured with a larger share of confidence than he was at this time : and this party triumphed. They resolved to remove lord George Germain from office ; and to recall sir Henry Clinton from America, who had requested it ; and to make one measure the consequence of the other, although there was no connection between the two cases ; but in order to make a connection between them, they applied to sir Guy Carleton to succeed sir Henry Clinton ; they were perfectly well assured, that sir Guy Carleton would not go to America, while lord George Germain continued secretary of state for the American department. The manœuvre succeeded.’ Vol. ii. p. 137.

Tedious quotations swell the article which relates to Dr. Franklin ; and, on the other hand, the chapter which follows is too short, as it concerns Mr. Burke, his son, his brother, and his cousin, of whose pamphlets some account is given.

The third volume consists of letters and other papers. The Whig (by Junius) being little known, we will transcribe a part of one of the papers published under that title ; premising, *to prevent misapplication*, that it appeared in November 1779.

‘ It is the duty of public virtue to exercise various attention to the several assaults that may be made by power, and will be ever made in some degree, against the interests of the community. Innumerable are the modes in which hypocrisy may deceive, tyranny oppress, corruption debauch, or negligence squander ; any one of which crimes, unchecked, would run to general ruin. But if, in monstrous and unheard-of conspiracy, they should all unite against the liberty and glory of a country, throughout all the betrayed trusts of the public ; active indeed ought to be the exertion of the people against such danger. The whig spirit existing in the country must collect and co-operate. If compressed in small compass, its spring will be the stronger. The public traitor may insult falling liberty with the reproach that all her spirit is extinguished ; that no public virtue remains ; that every man is base and wicked as himself ; but the reproach will operate as it ought. It will give vigour to strength, and activity to resentment. It will sharpen public spirit, and point the virtue of the patriot with the honour of the man.

‘ Vigilance should be in proportion to danger. If we have been remiss, and if public danger have, in consequence, encreased, let us now double our watch, and redeem our negligence.’ Vol. iii. p. 3.

‘ The British constitution hath changed its form, and is losing its

spirit. Some magic has metamorphosed the ancient pyramid into the deformity of a Chinese pagoda. The beautiful strength of its order is gone; and we now tremble for the narrowed base; oppressed by the middle; with monsters at the top!

‘How to recal the spirit that hath fled, and how to raise that which remains; how to restore external stability, and by what best means to purify into its ancient vigour the interior of the constitution, is the business which now demands the active vigilance of all—for the danger is universal and imminent.’ Vol. iii. p. 4.

This specimen will suffice to show the complexion of most of the papers in the Appendix, friendly as they are to the cause of liberty, and adverse to ministerial encroachments.

In our survey of this work, we have met with less novelty than we expected from the title; but we may safely recommend it as affording, in some instances, important and interesting information to those readers who are studious of politics and history.

Three Treatises. On the Brain, the Eye, and the Ear. Illustrated by Tables. By Alexander Monro, M. D. &c. 4to. 1l. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.

WE feel some difficulty in speaking of these treatises as we ought. To treat a learned and eminent professor with indifference, or to commend an attempt in which his genius and talents do not shine, would be equally improper and unjust. We cannot praise the work before us, or the temper in which it is seemingly written; yet we would not, on the other hand, severely blame the author for urging what he deems justifiable claims. He might, indeed, have urged them with less irritability; and even a superficial inquirer may observe, that this eagerness has long been suppressed, and blazes only when his chief antagonist is no more.

Dr. Monro first claims the discovery of the communication between the lateral ventricles and the third ventricle of the brain. This communication is denied by some respectable anatomists; and, very lately, the discovered passage has been said to be obvious only when the brain is drawn up, and, in reality, to be formed in the moment of discovery. Having often examined the disputed foramen, we think this account inconsistent with the appearances; for its edges are smooth, without the slightest resemblance of a lacerated part. Perhaps the just conclusion is, that this is not the constant structure, though perhaps the most frequent.

The author thinks that water is never collected on the out-

side of the brain in hydrocephalus; but that, when it appears there, it has passed from the ventricles in consequence of the altered texture of the brain. Perhaps this may be true, when hydrocephalus is an idiopathic disease: but we have seen at least one instance where it was collected externally, after fever attended with phrensy. The alteration in the texture of the brain refers to the softness and diminished bulk of this organ, after chronic hydrocephalus, and seems to be brought forward in support of the discovery that solid parts are taken up by the absorbents. This opinion Dr. Monro affirms that he taught in 1759. At what time Mr. J. Hunter pronounced the same opinion, is not ascertained; but it seems to have been several years afterwards. The discovery, however, is not worth a moment's contest; for it is no more than a very obvious deduction from facts; and each author should have gone farther, to prove by what process the living part, thus absorbed, dies and is dissolved; for, until the circulation ceases, and the solid matter is accessible to the solvent power of the fluids, no absorption *can* take place. This point requires more ample physiological disquisition than Dr. Monro has given it. He admits the fluidity, in considering the cure of hydrocephalus, but neglects the previous death of the part. He thinks that mercury, joined with squills, may be serviceable in the cure, though they have hitherto failed in his hands. The cure of hydrocephalus, by a surgical operation, is hopeless, except when the water is known to be external, and the texture of the brain uninjured.

In the treatise on the eye, Dr. Monro again goes over the anatomical description of the eye, repeating much of what has been said before, apparently that he may add every circumstance peculiarly his own. The refractive powers of the human lens appear, from his experiments, to be much greater than those of water, and less than those of glass—nearly between both; the focus of parallel rays falling on it, being at the distance of about $\frac{3}{8}$ of an inch from its centre. The part of the image lost by falling on the entrance of the optic nerve is about $\frac{1}{8}$ of its distance. The retina was found, by Mr. Fyfe, to be continued on the inner side of the ciliary processes, and to terminate in the outer edge of the lens: it enters double between the ciliary processes, like the pia mater between the doublings of the brain. That this part of the retina receives a second picture of the object, and assists vision, is a fanciful supposition; it would rather confuse it; and the argument, that those animals which see best in the dark, have the tapetum of a light colour, is not more important. Light is certainly lost in the black lining; but, where the light is weak, none can be spared. Our physician, indeed, forsakes the supposition as soon as it is formed; for he remarks that, in *all*

animals who have the tapetum, it is black in the doublings of the ciliary processes. The lens is kept in its place by the two layers of the coat of the vitreous humour, assisted in part by the retina.

Of the means by which the eye is enabled to give a distinct picture of objects at different distances, we shall add our author's opinion.

‘ Upon the whole : it appears to me,

‘ 1. That the iris, by lessening the pupil, and intercepting the most diverging rays of light, renders the picture of near objects more distinct.

‘ 2. That the recti muscles, by their action, lengthen the axis, because they press chiefly on the sides of the eyeball; and, further, the cornea is not only more dilatable than the sclerotic in general is, but it will be found that the sclerotic, in man and other animals, is thinner and more dilatable, in its anterior part, and in its posterior part where the picture is formed, than it is on its sides.

‘ 3. That the two oblique muscles forming an oblique girth around the eyeball, between the lens and bottom of the eye, must, by their pressure, increase the distance of the lens from the retina, or increase the length of the posterior part of the axis of the eyeball.

‘ The orbicularis palpebrarum renders the fore and middle part of the cornea, opposite to the pupil, more convex; and increases the length of the anterior part of the axis of the eyeball. And it is evident that all these means may concur in forming perfect vision.’ P. 137.

It may be observed, that we can at any time prove the truth of the last means, by a contraction of the eye for the purpose of seeing distant objects, when we always feel a considerable pressure on the ball. Dr. Monro claims this discovery, first published in the Philosophical Transactions for 1794, by Dr. Hossack. Some remarks on the lacrymal ducts, of no great importance, are added to what appeared in the ‘ Observations, Anatomical and Physiological,’ in 1758.

The next treatise is on the ear. What Dr. Monro had before done was, 1st, to trace the portio mollis on the internal parts of the ear; 2dly, to describe the parts of the ear, in the whale, in amphibious animals and fishes. In opposition to his sentiments, professor Scarpa has represented the description of the human ear as inaccurate, and the account of the communication of the meatus auditorius externus with the interior parts of the ear, and of these with each other, in cartilaginous fishes, as a mere fiction. Dr. Camper has denied the existence of the semi-circular canals in whales, and doubted that of the meatus auditorius externus in the skate.

This treatise is designed as an answer to those animadversions.

It might be sufficient to remark that Dr. Monro, in again pursuing the subject, has convinced himself of the accuracy of his former descriptions: yet we cannot avoid adding, that a true dignity of mind would have suggested a different conduct. If MM. Camper and Scarpa had differed from us in point of *facts*, we should have left these to the judgment of an impartial posterity, enlightened as it would be by farther observations and the inquiries of others. We mean not to say that the doctor has been guilty of any mistake: on the contrary, from a minute examination, we believe him to be correct in his descriptions; but he must be aware that, if *he* has been misled by appearances, the attestations of all the learned societies in Europe, *drawn from his own preparations*, could be of no avail; for they can see only what is shown. The same apparent structure, therefore, which has misled him, will equally mislead them.

The plates of these treatises are in general new; they excel those which have been given in the 'Nervous System,' and in the work on 'Fishes;' but this is faint praise, and they deserve no more. The general splendour of the publication should have been accompanied with superior ornaments. We lament the nationality which induces the professor to adhere to the engravers of North-Britain—or rather the little improvement made by these in an art which advances so rapidly at a short distance from them.

Poems, by S. T. Coleridge, second Edition. To which are now added Poems by Charles Lamb, and Charles Lloyd. Small 8vo. 6s. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.*

AS no author can justly be offended at liberal criticism, Mr. Coleridge 'returns his acknowledgments to the different reviewers for the assistance which they have afforded him in detecting his poetic deficiencies.' Upon a revival of his productions, he has omitted some with which he was less pleased, and has substituted new pieces for the discarded poems.

The dedication is one of the novelties of this edition. It is written in blank verse; and, while it does credit to the author, it also impresses a favourable idea of the brother to whom he offers the produce of his talents. The following passage is a part of it.

'Who counts the beatings of the lonely heart,
That Being knows, how I have lov'd thee ever,

* See our review of the former edition, Vol. XVII. (New Arr.) p. 209.

Lov'd as a brother, as a son rever'd thee !
O tis to me an ever-new delight,
My eager eye glist'ning with mem'ry's tear,
To talk of thee and thine ; or when the blast
Of the shrill winter, rattling our rude fash,
Endears the cleanly hearth and social bowl ;
Or when, as now, on some delicious eve,
We in our sweet sequester'd orchard-plot
Sit on the tree crook'd earth-ward ; whose old boughs,
That hang above us in an arborous roof,
Stirr'd by the faint gale of departing May
Send their loose blossoms flanting o'er our heads !' P. x.

The 'Ode on the Departing Year' (1796) was first published separately ; and, when we reviewed it, we condemned the affectation and pomposity of the writer : but the piece, though it has since been altered, is still liable, in some degree, to the same imputations.

From the new sonnets we select that which is addressed to the river Otter, as it will gratify those who love to refer to the scenes of early enjoyment.

Dear native brook ! wild streamlet of the west !
How many various-fated years have past,
What blissful and what anguish'd hours, since last
I skim'd the smooth thin stone along thy breast,
Numbering its light leaps ! Yet so deep imprest
Sink the sweet scenes of childhood, that mine eyes
I never shut amid the sunny blaze,
But strait with all their tints thy waters rise,
Thy crossing plank, thy margin's willowy maze,
And bedded sand that vein'd with various dyes
Gleam'd thro' thy bright transparence to the gaze !
Visions of childhood ! oft have ye beguil'd
Lone manhood's cares, yet waking fondest sighs,
Ah ! that once more I were a careless child !' P. 78.

The 'Reflections on having left a Place of Retirement' evince a feeling heart. The comparison between the weeping eyes of a humane friend and the unmoved face of another equally benevolent, and the contrast between the latter and those who merely affect sympathy, are well drawn.

' Sweet is the tear that from some Howard's eye
Drops on the cheek of one, he lifts from earth :
And he, that works me good with unmov'd face,
Does it but half : he chills me while he aids,
My benefactor, not my brother man !
Yet even this, this cold beneficence

Seizes my praise, when I reflect on those
 The fluggard Pity's vision-weaving tribe !
 Who sigh for wretchedness, yet shun the wretched,
 Nursing in some delicious solitude
 Their slothful loves and dainty sympathies !' P. 103.

In the invitation to Mr. Lloyd, many of the lines are stiff and affected; and a passage near the close of the piece may be misconstrued. When the poet says, 'she, whom I love, shall love thee,' will not some readers be reminded of Cato's offer of his wife to his friend, even though such a thought could not enter into the head of the writer?

The lines 'on the Christening of a Friend's Child' are trifling; and some of the expressions and rhymes are ludicrous, though not intended to be so.

In Mr. Lloyd's poems *, occasional alterations have been made for the present edition; but they do not require any other notice than a remark that they may in general be regarded as improvements; and, with regard to those pieces of Mr. Lamb which form a part of the volume, we may observe that most of them have considerable merit.

Travels in the Two Sicilies, and some Parts of the Apennines.
 (Concluded from p. 30.)

THE Euganean mountains are not a part of the two Sicilies, or of the adjacent burning islands. They are, however, volcanic, though their activity is beyond the earliest records of history; and, in such regions, we must with pleasure and instruction follow our able and industrious author. The ground, indeed, is not wholly new, as our countryman sir John Strange has given a descriptive catalogue of the principal lavas found upon those mountains.

Some of the lava is granitous; and, in this, nodules of quartz are found to exist; but these are evidently a secondary production, formed by the filtration of water. In one part of these mountains, carbonate of lime occurs, united with flints in a manner so gradually varying, that the former seems almost to change into the latter, though no change really takes place. Each earth seems to have been gradually deposited from water, and intimately mixed during its deposition.

The most remarkable lava of these mountains is globular, with a central nucleus, interspersed with brilliant particles which resemble mica, but are in reality of pitch-stone; and a pure pitch-stone lava is also found. Father Terzi mistook

* See our XVIIth Vol. (New Arr.) p. 54, and Vol. XIX. p. 346.

this lava for glass; but, on a minute examination, it does not even merit the appellation of enamel. Some pieces of real glass occurred to the abbé in Terzi's collection; but, on proceeding to the spot from which they were taken, they appeared to have composed a part of the scoriæ of a furnace. In another place, some pumices, the most indisputable marks of ancient volcanos, appeared to have been carried from the shore, where the sea had brought them from volcanic islands; and these circumstances induce the abbé to give some directions for distinguishing those hills which are truly volcanic from others that only appear to have been so.

Some judicious 'reflections and corollaries' follow the description of the lavas. Our author concludes that these mountains, though some miles distant from the sea, were once immersed in it, forming small volcanic islands. The lavas, in their nature and component parts, resemble those of *Ætna*; and common fire makes them flow in glass or enamel. Basaltés, we have seen, may be formed both in the humid and dry way: in these mountains we have evidence of each process.

The nature of the gasses of volcanos has not yet been satisfactorily investigated. This subject the abbé has pursued with great ingenuity, though his experiments are not conclusive. He examined various volcanic products, which, on melting, expanded with great violence, and rose above the sides of the crucible. These, however, produced, on experiment, no gaseous fluid; and, pursuing the inquiry, he found great reason to conclude, that, when the gas occasioned the expansion in the crucible and the cells of lava, it was because the glass or other substances assumed a rarefied form, and became air. This we can readily admit to have been often the case; but we consider the experiments as indecisive, because they were made on substances which had already undergone the process; and the gasses, which they might have originally contained, were of course exhausted. We do not, however, offer this objection with very great confidence, since we know, from other experiments, that the bases of these lavas do not contain a very large proportion of air. When an explosion occurs, it is attributed to the concurrence of water, raised by the fire into vapour or air; and several facts are adduced in support of this opinion, which we many years ago offered in our journal. It is remarkable, that though water, covered by a burning body, thus expands with an incalculable force, yet, when poured on it, it gradually disappears without any explosion. We lately quoted from one of the *Exeter essays* some experiments of this kind made by *Saussure**; and

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XVIII. p. 400.

many similar observations occur in the present chapter. The abbé, however, feels a difficulty from the different results of the experiment of pouring the water on tin and lead, which the opinion, suggested in that essay, would have explained.

The last chapter of the third volume relates to the discovery of the muriatic acid in various lavas. It is united, not chemically combined, with them, and seems to be an addition subsequent to their fusion; for recent lavas contain no portion of it.

In the fourth volume, the writer examines at considerable length the heat and fluidity of lavas. He leans towards the idea of great fluidity; but, if in this he errs, the error is counterbalanced by his candour in the relation of facts. Various observations show that lavas are sometimes very fluid: this circumstance, however, does not always imply great heat, but a greater fusibility of the bodies. The extent of a course of lava is no proof of great fluidity; for, when the matter is not supplied from the mountain, so as to furnish a continued accession of heat, the lava soon ceases to flow. It is added, that the induration of the external crust, which prevents the inferior current from feeling the effect of the air, contributes to preserve the heat; but the air, being scorched by the preceding eruption, cannot have a very powerful influence. The bias of the abbé's opinion is more distinctly perceived in his answers to the opposite doctrine, which is patronised by Dolomieu and Kirwan. To his replies an answer is not difficult: but we forbear to engage farther in the question for two reasons. One is, that, from every view we can take of the subject, the effect of volcanic fires is liquefaction and not fusion; we mean that the heat is commonly sufficient to render the substances fluid, not to disengage their component parts, so as to admit new combinations. The second ground is, that, from some unknown reason, the fire of volcanos is not to be imitated in our furnaces. From a careful inquiry into the different facts, and an attentive comparison of various experiments, we cannot find that the heat of a volcano in general rises so high as that of a glass furnace. Something tends to make even the smaller heat of volcanos apparently more powerful than the greater fire of the forge: it does not appear to be sulphur acting as a flux, or, as Dolomieu supposes, the innate caloric of the substances themselves, or wholly the continuance of the heat, or (according to Faujas de St. Fond) the aqueous fluid itself. Yet with the duration of the heat and the water, it is most probably connected; and it will perhaps be found, that the water which occasions the eruption, when changed into air, produces, as a compound menstruum, the liquidity mentioned, in comparatively low degrees of heat.

We have afterwards a general account of the Lipari islands. The most valuable commodity is the wine produced from their grapes, the process for which the abbé describes; but an article, which may perhaps be rendered of greater importance, is the cactus opuntia, the favourite food of the cochineal insect. This vegetable, also called the Indian fig, grows with great luxuriance; and there is little doubt that the insect, if conveyed to these islands, would equally thrive. From the observations of the inhabitants, swallows seem not to migrate; for the warm scirocco brings them forward, after they have disappeared both in Lipari and Stromboli. This subject the abbé promises to renew in a separate publication. We shall only add what appears to us to be the fact, after a long investigation. Swallows certainly migrate: but various circumstances may prevent the whole number from leaving the coast. That incipient torpor which leads the majority to migrate, induces those which remain to seek a warm retreat.

Of the circumstances and condition of the inhabitants of these islands, our traveller thus speaks:

‘It is incredible how contented these islanders are amid all their poverty. Ulysses, perhaps, cherished not a greater love for his Ithaca, than they bear to their Eolian rocks, which, wretched as they may appear, they would not exchange for the Fortunate Islands. Frequently have I entered their huts, which seem like the nests of birds hung to the cliffs. They are framed of pieces of lava ill joined together, equally destitute of ornament within and without, and scarcely admit a feeble uncertain light, like some gloomy caves. Sometimes I have been present at their wretched meals, set out in coarse dishes, or on the bare ground on which they sat, and consisting of black barley bread, and wild fruits, and, sometimes, by way of dainty, some salt-fish, and pure water to quench their thirst. Attending only to the first impression of the scene, I thought I beheld the perfect image of wretchedness and misery: but, on more mature consideration, I discovered in these rude huts, and in the midst of this hard fare, an enviable happiness, which, I doubt, is not to be found in the palaces of the great, or among the delicious viands of royal tables. A cheerfulness and perfect tranquillity shone in the countenances of these poor people, and evidently possessed their hearts. Their ruinous cottages, which must be viewed with pity and contempt by the rich and great, to them were dear; and the food, which the luxurious would have rejected as insipid or nauseous, to their palates had an exquisite flavour.’ Vol. iv. p. 147.

The observations on Scylla and Charybdis are valuable. Travellers have steered between these dangers, or surveyed them at a distance, without adding the slightest information to that which Homer gave above 2500 years ago. Scylla, in-

deed, remains unchanged. The roaring billows still give a hollow sound, like the barking of dogs; and this part is still dangerous, when the current sets from south to north, and a violent north wind blows at the same time. The Messinese pilots, however, boldly put to sea in these circumstances, and frequently rescue the endangered passengers. Charybdis is less formidable. To our author it appeared a spot where the waves rolled confusedly in eddies; and, on sounding (for he ventured to sail over it) the depth did not exceed 500 feet; but, at a little distance, it was nearly double. He adds, that

‘ A great part of what has been written relative to Charybdis is very erroneous. We have seen how many authors, from Homer to the present time, have described it as a real whirlpool, or great gulph revolving in itself, within the circumference of which should any ship enter it is immediately drawn to the centre and swallowed up. When the current is dying away, or when there is no current, this description has no resemblance to truth—Charybdis is then perfectly innocent, as I have been fully convinced by my own observations; and even when it is agitated and dangerous, it still contains no incavation or gulph of the nature of a vortex, but merely a strong agitation and dashing of its waves, which produces those small whirlings of its waters, which are only accidental, and not to be feared. So far likewise is Charybdis from drawing to itself and swallowing vessels, that it rather repels them and throws them to a distance.’ Vol. iv. p. 186.

This is undoubtedly true; but we suspect that the case was once different. In this part, the bottom of the sea is thrown up in a conical mound. Similar cones are still raised in the craters of volcanos. If this be a submarine volcano—a supposition by no means improbable—the present cone may be formed in the spot where a deep crater formerly existed, which, in peculiar sets of the current, may have before this event produced a whirlpool.

The remainder of this volume contains some miscellaneous philosophical observations. One chapter relates to the phosphorescent medusæ of the strait of Messina. Medusæ are called sea-jellies, or sea-nettles, from their consistence, or from the pungency felt on touching them. They are singular as instances of a considerable bulk, connected with a very small proportion of solid or organic substance. Yet it is certain that they are living bodies, with the varied functions of animal nature. They resemble the umbrella of a mushroom, but have, instead of the central stalk of the latter, four long cylindrical bodies, probably tentacula. Their motions consist in the almost continual constriction and dilatation of the umbrella; and the seat of the oscillation is a thin muscular membrane surrounding the ring of the umbrella.

The phosphorescence of the medusa is connected with its oscillations; and, indeed, in every instance of animal phosphorescence it is the same, from the vermicular motion of the little creature which inhabits the imbricated scales of the oyster-shell, to the more splendid refulgence of the lampryis. Two phænomena we shall particularly notice.

‘ With respect to the medusæ which were kept out of the water, a fact presented itself to my observation, which, from its extraordinary nature, I should have supposed accidental, had not the same result followed on repeated trials. A medusa having been left two-and-twenty hours on a sheet of white paper had ceased to live; the greater part of it was even dissolved into a liquor, and every luminous trace was become extinct. A large glass full of well-water happening to stand on the table, I, without any particular intention, chanced to throw the medusa into it, which directly sank to the bottom, and remained there motionless; but, to my great surprise, immediately shone with so bright a light that I was able to read characters of a tolerable size. The water at the same time became very luminous, and on immersing my finger in it, it was plainly discernible. Thinking that the same would happen, and perhaps with more effect, if sea-water were used; I threw the well-water out of the glass, and filled it with sea-water. But no light was now visible. I substituted fresh water for salt, and a beautiful phosphorus again appeared.

‘ Analogous to this phenomenon, of which I am unable to assign the cause, was the following:

‘ Another medusa which was dead, and had not been luminous for some time, was lying, out of the water, in the window of my chamber during the night. A slight rain chanced to fall, and every drop which fell on the dead medusa was changed into a brilliant spangle, till in a short time the medusa was studded all over with such shining points. I could produce no such effect by sprinkling it with sea-water in imitation of rain.’ Vol. iv. p. 234.

‘ When the medusa is handled or rubbed in the water, the quality of phosphorescence passes into the latter; which it likewise does when the animal is left immersed in it. But this experiment succeeds much better in fresh than in salt water; as I have observed that, other circumstances being equal, the brilliancy of the former is nearly double that of the latter. We may, therefore, by means of these medusæ, create artificial phosphori.

‘ For this purpose I employed well-water, as being more suitable, and with it made several experiments deserving attention. In thirteen ounces of this water, contained in a crystal glass, I squeezed two large medusæ, which had just been taken out of the sea. The water became somewhat turbid, but at the same time so luminous, that it gave sufficient light to a whole room. After two-and-

twenty minutes it began to grow feeble, and at the end of an hour and a half was entirely extinguished. Agitation, however, then restored it, in the same manner as we have said it revived the phosphorence of the medusæ when it appeared to be extinct. If, therefore, the water in the glass was stirred with a stick, or even with the finger, the brightness re-appeared, but was always feebler in proportion to the time elapsed. I observed, likewise, that the greater the agitation of the water, the brighter was the phosphorescence, which, however, when the water was no longer agitated, had only a momentary duration, as we have before remarked of the medusæ.

‘ When the water can no longer be excited to phosphorescence by the motion of its parts, it may by the application of warmth. I made the experiments I have related, in a temperature of between 21 and 24 degrees of Reaumur’s thermometer (80° and 86° of Fahrenheit); and if in this temperature the water in the glasses, though strongly shaken, emitted no light, it became lucid when the thermometer rose to 30° (100° of Fahr.) and still more vivid in a higher temperature, provided it was not too high, for then it entirely ceased.

‘ I made this experiment with other liquors besides water, and found several, which I had imagined unsuitable for such a purpose, might be impregnated with the light of the medusa. Such, for example, was human urine, which, in the intensity and duration of its phosphorescence, was not inferior to fresh water. But the experiment succeeded better in no fluid than cow’s milk. A single medusa, of a moderate size, being pressed and shaken in twenty-seven ounces of this milk, rendered it so luminous that I could read the writing of a letter at three feet distance. The duration of this phosphorus was likewise greater than that of the water. After eleven hours from the time I first put the medusa into it, it still retained some light; and when that ceased, agitation restored it, as did warmth, when agitation alone became ineffectual.

‘ Repeating the experiment with the same milk, I poured it out of the glass upon the floor of the room, in order to observe the appearance it might produce. While in the air, it exhibited a kind of very white and shining cataract, and, when it reached the ground, formed a little lake of light, at first vivid, but which, in a few moments, grew feebler, and, in about five minutes, entirely disappeared.

‘ If the hand were immersed in the phosphorescent milk, and drawn out again, it appeared elegantly silvered over; but this colour soon vanished; though it might be made to return for a moment by rubbing or warming the hand. This light not only attached to the hand, but to cloths; as I perceived in a towel, one edge of which had touched the luminous milk. In this case, likewise, the re-appearance of the light might be obtained by rubbing or warming the cloths.

While employed in these experiments, I observed that throwing the milk against any hard body would restore its phosphorescence when extinct. The same milk, which emitted no light on the strongest agitation within the vessel, when let fall upon the floor became luminous; and the more violent the blow, the brighter was the light. Thus, if by night this liquor was poured from a high window, while it was in the air it had no luminous appearance, but, as soon as it struck the ground, shone with a bright light; which, however, presently grew feeble, and disappeared.' Vol. iv. p. 237.

These facts are new and highly important. The explanation is not easy. Water, it is known, is not phosphoric; and its phosphorescence must have arisen from the minute portions of the animal scattered through it. The light in the living creature proceeded from the muscular membrane of the periphery of the umbrella, and the larger tentacula; and we know that it was connected with the active motions of the animal. It was, therefore, with some surprise that we found our author attributing the light to a viscid fluid, covering the ring. It is, perhaps, no unreasonable supposition, that the light is communicated from the organic parts of the animal to this fluid, and, during its motion, is derived in part from each. It is at least certain, that, while the emission of light, during life, is unlimited, the luminosity of the liquor, after death, is only temporary. It must be added, that this viscid fluid is a peculiar one, not the fluid of which the animal chiefly consists: the latter is sea-water, or water less saline than that of the sea.

The account of the coral fishery in the strait of Messina is curious: but, for this, we refer the inquisitive reader to the work itself.

In the last chapter, the fishery of the sea-dog is the subject of remark. This kind of shark is often a fatal enemy to swimmers, and has been found to swallow an entire man; for, in addition to the extent of the jaws, the throat is flexible and elastic. A particular description of a large shark is annexed, which seems to be a different species from the *squalus maximus*. Some of the numerous teeth lie low, and are covered with a fungous flesh. These, in the opinion of the abbé, are not wholly useless, but are designed to supply the place of those which may be injured or broken. From the size of some of the fossil teeth of sharks, the bulk of the animal must have been immense; and the miracle of Jonah ceases to be incredible.

We have now, in three copious articles, examined these travels; and we do not think that our labour has been misapplied. This attention will prove our own opinion of the va-

lue of the work ; but we cannot leave it without a more pointed commendation. We can truly say that we have not lately met with volumes in which entertainment the most interesting, and instruction the most correctly scientific, have been so intimately combined. The translation is free, and yet faithful. The plates are not equally deserving of praise ; but this is not the fault of the English artist, who could only copy what was before him ; and he seems to have excelled, rather than to have sunk below, the Italian engraver.

Commentaries on the Law of Scotland, respecting the Description and Punishment of Crimes. By David Hume, Esq. Advocate, Professor of the Law of Scotland, in the University of Edinburgh. 2 Vols. 4to. 2l. 8s. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.

IT seems a paradox in the science of legislation, that the transactions by which different species of property are affected in the commerce of mankind, should become the subjects of elaborate legal disquisition, and that a topic of such superior importance as criminal law should experience a neglect unfavourable to the advantages and the beauty of systematic arrangement. Before the appearance of the works of Hale, Hawkins, and Blackstone, the criminal jurisprudence of this country had long laboured under the defect of methodical illustration ; and the student and practitioner were reduced to the necessity of gleaning a scientific acquaintance with the subject from the repulsive Gothicism of the older law-books, or the rambling quaintness of the learned commentator upon Lyttleton.

The union of Scotland and England did not absorb those peculiarities in the administration of justice which distinguished the former from the latter kingdom ; and, from the flourishing growth of talents, and the active literary spirit long conspicuous among our Caledonian fellow-subjects, it might have been expected that no ground for a complaint of the very imperfect elucidation of the Scottish criminal law would have existed at a period so recent as the composition of the present work.

Referring, in his Introduction, to the English crown law, Mr. Hume bestows a liberal panegyric on its various excellencies, but denies its boasted comparative superiority, in many important particulars, over the Scottish system.

* Among many instances that might be given, I shall mention but one, of this fancied excellence of the law of England being

in a great measure a delusion, which has sprung from the looking to only one rule in the criminal process, without attending to the others. What I allude to is the complaint which we often hear, of our want of the peremptory challenge of the jurors, and of that punctilious and critical precision respecting the terms of the indictment and record, which is observed in the English courts. But those who expatiate on this grievance, entirely forget, that, (except in case of treason, by provision of modern statutes), no prisoner in England sees his indictment, or knows what the charge against him is, till he stands arraigned on it in the face of court; and that he is till then in equal ignorance who the persons are that are summoned to his jury, and who the witnesses that are to be used against him. Whereas with us, he must have full information in all these important articles, fifteen days at least before his trial; and has thus far better opportunity than the prisoner in any trial before an English court, to discover and prepare any reasonable objections that may lie to the indictment, witnesses, or jurors, or any of them. He has too with us the farther advantage, in every instance, of counsel to address the jury, and conduct his defence; which no prisoner in England has upon the issue of guilty or not guilty, in any capital case, except in trials for treason. And here, with reference to the indulgence which is shown in these particulars to such who are under trial for that high crime, I cannot forbear to insert the observations of sir Michael Foster on that occasion. "The furnishing the prisoner with the names, professions, and places of abode of the witnesses and jury, so long before the trial, may serve many bad purposes, which are too obvious to be mentioned. One good purpose, and but one it may serve. It giveth the prisoner an opportunity of informing himself of the character of the witnesses and jury. But this single advantage will weigh very little, in the scale of justice or sound policy, against the many bad ends that may be answered by it. However, if it weigheth any thing in the scale of justice, the crown is entitled to the same opportunity of sifting the character of the prisoner's witnesses." Surely it ought to be a lesson to us, of the moderation and diffidence to be observed with respect to all opinions on subjects of this kind, when we find this able and excellent author,—an author too, who has distinguished himself as a popular lawyer, and strenuous advocate in the cause of freedom,—thus expressing himself rather in dispraise of these humane provisions; which to us, who are habituated to them, as the ordinary course of process, seem to be indispensable to a fair and equitable trial.

Another topic, on which also it is not uncommon to hear encomiums passed at our own expence, is the greater humanity of the English practice, which requires the unanimity of the twelve jurors in their verdict. But, (to pass over all inquiries concerning the substance of this rule;) if the jury must be unanimous in their

voice, they are however warranted to convict, and even in capital cases are in the use of doing so, upon the testimony, if positive and explicit, of a single witness; a sort of proof, how reputable soever the witness, which no Scots jury can lawfully pay regard to, in any the most inconsiderable case. Add to this, that the prisoner in Scotland has the same aid of court, as the prosecutor, for compelling his witnesses to appear. Likewise, every witness that is produced against the prisoner, has right to see his declaration cancelled before deposing on the trial; so as he may be at absolute freedom in giving his evidence upon oath. The witnesses too are examined out of the presence of each other, which obviates any risk of a combination against the prisoner; and after being examined and dismissed, no witness can again be called on, to explain what he has said, nor to supply omissions: things, (as I understand it), all or most of them quite foreign to the English form of process*, where the opposite practices are established, and are even thought to be essential, (and possibly they are so as matters are managed with them), to the execution of criminal justice. Notice may also be taken of the jealousy which actuates our custom, of all intercourse between the judge and jury. In so much that the verdict, once delivered into court, cannot on any pretence be retracted, nor even amended or explained, but must be received and taken with all its imperfections, how glaring soever, on its head. An English jury, on the contrary, are conversed with, reinclosed, questioned and instructed by the court, without any manner of restraint. Vol. i. p. xlv.

We have extracted this comparative view on account of the sketch which is given of the proceedings in criminal cases in Scotland. But we are of opinion, that few of our readers will consider this system as calculated to produce the full effect of impartial justice. The inflexible rejection of the testimony of a single witness, and the refusal of permitting witnesses to explain, or add to, their evidence, must frequently operate against the punishment of guilt, and counteract the useful and solemn purposes of judicial investigation. The preclusion of all intercourse between the judge and the jury on the subject of the verdict may also appear absurd and improper to those who think that the practice, as it prevails with us, has no other tendency than that of rendering the determinations of a jury consistent with sense, or subservient to the suggestions of lenity; though others, recollecting the behaviour of lord

* The author mistakes in supposing that the examination of witnesses *out of the hearing of each other* is peculiar to the Scottish criminal process; the practice is not infrequent in the English courts, and it is considered as a matter of course at the desire of the accused, or of the conductors of a prosecution. REV.

Mansfield on some occasions of this kind, may not be inclined to condemn the Scottish regulation.

Reserving, for a subsequent part of this *critique*, our sentiments on the large discretionary powers of the Scotch judges, we feel ourselves bound to admit that the allowance of full defence by counsel to prisoners in all cases, is a provision of which the adoption would add a wreath of candour and humanity to the just fame of our criminal jurisprudence. The prosecution of offenders *entirely* at the public expense, is also a measure so equitable and salutary, that we heartily wish for its universal prevalence in the administration of criminal law.

The multiplication of crimes and punishments is the sting that unhappily attends the progress of commercial opulence and luxurious refinement; and we are sorry to contrast the following summary of Scottish punishments, with the *shocking average* of capital and other penal inflictions in England.

‘I am certain that I am within the truth, when I mention, that on an average of thirty years preceding the year 1797, the executions for all Scotland have not exceeded six in a year. For a period of fifteen years, preceding the 1st May 1782, the number of persons who suffered death at Edinburgh, (where by far the greater number of capital trials take place), amounted only to twenty-three; that is, in every two years only three persons suffered death. And as to the inferior punishments, I have it from good authority, that one quarter-sessions, for the single town of Manchester, have sent more felons to the plantations, than all the Scots judges do for ordinary in a twelvemonth.’ Vol. i. p. l.

To Englishmen this must be a very unpleasing comparison; and we hope that the increasing commerce and opulence of the northern division of the island will not swell the catalogue of the crimes of its inhabitants.

It appears that Mr. Hume has made a liberal use of the English publications on crown law; and we perceive no important instance in which he dissents from the legal constructions put on different offences by our judges. In treating of homicide, he takes notice of a distinction in the mode of punishment between the crime of murder and that of attempting to kill, which has in several cases been obliterated by the statute law of England.

‘It is necessary to all conviction of homicide, that a person have been actually killed. In this I mean to say, that no attempt to kill will come under the description, or expose to the proper pains of homicide, how deliberate soever the purpose, or how cruel the means employed, and how little soever it be owing to remorse or want of resolution on the part of the assassin, that he has failed of success. Nay, though the attempt have in a great

measure succeeded, and the party have received a wound which brings him to the brink of the grave, and leaves him infirm for the remainder of his life, still the benignity of our practice will consider, that the man is not lost to society, and will allow the offender an opportunity to repent, and to make atonement for his crime." Vol. i. P. 260.

We have strong doubts of the wisdom of the principle thus adopted by the Scottish law. If the punishment of death be considered as necessary on other occasions, it seems to be as applicable to the crime of the assassin who has only been prevented by accident from *completing* his work, as to any species of offence against property; nor do we see any satisfactory reason why the mutilator of the person of another, or the inflictor of a dangerous wound, should meet with less severe punishment than the fabricator of an illegal paper-security, or the villain who breaks open a house with *intent to steal*.

In the chapters concerning adultery, incest, and other offences, now punished in England by the feeble jurisdiction of ecclesiastical censure, we discern strong features of the ferocious bigotry which marked the triumph of presbytery in Scotland. It must be allowed that offences of this kind are very injurious to the peace of society; but we could wish that some salutary medium should take place between the rigid inefficacy and the lax cognisance with which they are noticed in the different countries.

The chapter which treats 'of treason' contains a short account of a very absurd part of the old criminal process in North-Britain; namely, 'trial for treason after death,' which (says our author)

'was attempted for the first time in 1540, in the case of Robert Lesly; and mainly upon the authority of the civil law, which, in the case at least of proper perduellion, or rising in arms, seems to have permitted this extraordinary sort of accusation. The novelty and injustice of such a proceeding, excited, however, surprise and discontent in the country. Therefore the king, "for stanching of sik murmur," and meaning (as he tells us) "on nae forte to move or doe any thing, bot that hee may justlie bee advised of the three estaites," came to parliament and desired their opinion "quhidder that he hes ane action to pursew sik summondes or not." In answer to which consultation the whole estates of parliament "all in ane voyce, but variance and discrepance," assented to this new pretension; and declared his majesty's right to insist in such actions "conform to the commoun law, gude equity and reason, notwithstanding there is nae special law, acte nor provision of the realme, made thereupon of before." Positive as this opinion was, it did not however prove satisfactory to the people at large; and it was thought proper thus far to comply with their desires, that the

prosecution should only lie within the space of five years after the traitor's death, and for such treason as had been notorious in his lifetime. This, which in the main was agreeable to the civil law, was ordered by a statute of 1542, which has never been printed. Yet on the 24th June 1609, sentence of forfeiture passed in parliament against Logan of Restalrig, for accession to the earl of Gowrie's conspiracy; of which in his lifetime Logan had never been suspected.

'The form of this extraordinary sort of process, was by citation of the traitor's heirs; not only as they might defend his memory, but as they were themselves interested to save their inheritance from confiscation. Moreover, as if to render the iniquity of the thing more palpable, the shocking indecency was sometimes used, of raising the bones of the deceased from the grave, and presenting them at the bar. This was done, both in Robert Lesly's case, and in that of Logan of Restalrig. Notice may also be taken of the proceedings in the case of Francis Moubray, in January 1603. This man being killed in his attempt to escape from the castle of Edinburgh; his dead body was brought to the bar, and there had doom pronounced over it, to be hanged and quartered, and the head and limbs to be stuck up on conspicuous places of the city.

'It does not appear, that either trial in absence or trial after death was ever attempted to be applied to the statutory treasons of murder under trust, theft in landed men, and the like. Every proceeding of this kind is now excluded by the communication of the English course of process; for which reason nothing farther shall be added on the subject.' Vol. ii. p. 458.

The odious species of legal revenge, mentioned in this extract, has had a sort of parallel in the treatment of the bodies of some heretics who died a natural death, and also of several persons who were concerned in the deposition and execution of Charles the First. The better sense and more polished manners of the present day are naturally shocked at the recollection of such impotent and indecorous prostitutions of the forms of justice.

From these Commentaries it may be collected, that the grounds on which the *malus animus*, which leads to criminality, is presumed by the law of Scotland, are with scarcely any exception similar to the principles which guide our English judges. The powers of the latter, however, are confined within those limits which, without impeding their salutary exertion, render them consistent with the most scrupulous spirit of constitutional freedom. The various offences which in Scotland are punished at the discretion of the judges, form an accumulation of juridical power, which tends to destroy the balance of civil liberty. Mr. Hume, alluding, in his chapter

of sedition, to some recent trials, applauds the vigour and the efficacy of such discretionary powers in preserving the public peace. We are not friendly to the turbulent spirit of revolutionary innovation; but, as other factions than those of a popular complexion may often exist, it is not difficult to believe that powers of a high and indefinite nature may, in some instances, be perverted to sinister purposes, in compliance with the infirmity of human passions.

By the advocates and solicitors of North-Britain this work will be found highly useful; and it will not be uninstrucive to those who practise or study the English law. But, while we admit that the author has employed much laudable attention on a very important branch of jurisprudence, we feel it our duty to remark, what our readers have perhaps anticipated from the extracts, that his style is not the most polished, and that his performance, in point of composition, is inferior to most of the modern publications on the subject of law.

T. Lucretii Cari de Rerum Naturâ Libros sex longe emendatiores reddidit G. Wakefield, &c. (Continued from p. 9.)

ON a former occasion, when we censured the practice of those commentators who overwhelm the text of a classic author with a multiplicity of notes, we complimented Mr. Wakefield for his moderation in that respect*: but we are sorry to observe, that he has been too lavish of his annotations in the work which we are now surveying. We readily admit, however, that he has displayed a considerable share of acuteness and ability in the execution of a difficult task.

In entering upon the second book, we are not pleased with the arrangement of the fifth and sixth lines. The sentence would begin better with *Suave etiam*, in continuation of the *Suave mari magno*.

In the 28th verse, we find *citharæ* for *citharis*. *Reboant* will then be a transitive verb, as *resonat* in the passage cited from Virgil; or *citharæ* may be taken for the dative case singular.

V. 32, 33.

— *Anni*

Tempora conspargunt viridanteis floribus herbas.

Mr. Wakefield thinks that *auræ tempore*, that is, *auræ vernæ suo tempore*, would be a preferable reading; but we do not altogether agree with him.

77, 78. Inque brevi spatio mutantur secla animantum,
Et, quasi cursores, vitæ lampada tradunt.

We wish that the editor had transcribed the passage of Plato, which Lucretius imitated. We take it from Lam-

* See our review of his Virgil, Vol. XVII. p. 370.

binus. Γεννωντες και εκτρεφοντες παιδας, καθαπερ λαμπαδα τον
βιον παραδιδοντες αλλοις εξ αλλων.

84, 85. Our expositor would read, from the varieties of the MSS.

‘ ——— nam, quom cito, sæpe
Obvia conflixere.’

110. Confociare etiam coitus potuere recepta.

‘ Pro librorum omnium lectione motus—Bentleius reponi
jussit cætus; pro quâ voce scribendum potius coitus existimavi.’

157. nec res remoratur. Some of the MSS. having remora-
vit, Mr. Wakefield gives, from conjecture, remoræ fit.

187. From the traces of the MS. readings, he would read,

‘ Ne tibi dent, timeo, flammæ corpora fraudem,’

instead of

‘ Ne tibi dent in eo—.’

197. He has admitted non, the reading of a MS. for
nam.

206. ——— cæli sublime volanteis.

The use of a neuter verb with a regimen resembling that
of a verb transitive, is applauded on this occasion in high
terms; and not only parallel passages are introduced, but
some verses are altered for the purpose of illustration.

214. Heic and illic are inserted for hinc and illinc, ‘ ipso
poëtâ’ (says the editor) ‘ id precibus importunissimis flagi-
tante.’

220. Tantum, quod minimum mutatum dicere possis.

Momen appears for minimum in one manuscript; and Bent-
ley proposes nutare ut for mutatum: but Mr. Wakefield pru-
dently rejects these deviations from the established reading.

317. ——— tondentes pabula læta.

He conjectures that the poet wrote latè, and refers to Vir-
gil, Æn. iii. 538; but he does not censure læta as improper.

320. Et satiatei agnei ludunt, blandeque coruscant.

Some manuscripts have satiat, perhaps for satiatè; and the
last word of the line is variously written: but we prefer co-
ruscant.

343. Mr. Wakefield has, with reason, adopted the con-
jecture of the London editors, who substituted armenta for ar-
busta, the reading of all the copies.

363. ——— *subitamque* avortere curam.

One copy has *summam*, which is inadmissible. The ordinary acceptance of *subitus* is less proper, in this place, than the *usus exquisitior*, as it is here termed by the editor; who explains *subitam curam* by 'id curæ quod eam subiit.' Various quotations are adduced for the illustration of the latter meaning; but we do not think that all the passages are strictly applicable.

380. Dissimili inter se *quædam* volitare figurâ.

We are pleased with the substitution of *quadam* for *quædam*; and Mr. Wakefield supports his introduction of the former word by a just statement of the import of the passage.

390. ——— quam de quibus est *liquor almus* aquarum.

There are different readings of this passage; but we doubt the expediency, at least the necessity, of altering *almus* to *albus*, though Mr. Wakefield strenuously urges that point.

428. ——— *angellis* paullum prostantibus.

Some editions have *angululis*: but the oldest manuscripts, supported by Arnobius, oppose the reception of that word.

After the 452d line, we find a verse obnoxious to the censure of most of the editors of Lucretius, who pronounce it inconsistent with the context, and supposititious. It is this—

Namque papaveris haustus item est facilis quod aquarum.

Our commentator plausibly defends it.

'Non equidem cum illis sentio, qui eum omnino illepidum et intempestivum judicant; sed tacitæ objectioni putem Lucretium hoc interposito ire obviam voluisse; quasi dixerat: "In superioribus affirmavi quidem, ea corpora, quibus nostri sensus diverse solent affici, ex primordiis constare diverse figuratis: mireris ergo fortasse, me lævorem atque rotunditatem principiis fluidorum omnium, gustu tantopere discrepantium, assignare posse: sed me facilitas, quâ omnia labuntur et devolvuntur, ad hoc cogit; adeo ut liquor papavereus, exempli gratiâ, cum solido quovis comparatus, necesse est ex lævibus æque sit et rotundis generaliter, ac simplex aqua; quamvis fortasse minus accurate per se specialiter lævigatis et rotundatis.'

464. Sudor uti maris est——

Bentley recommends *udor*; but Mr. Wakefield properly rejects it.

467. ——— *nec* tamen hæc retineri hamata necessum.

The editor plumes himself upon his accurate explanation of *nec*, by referring it to *et non*; and, after dwelling on this point, he closes a very unnecessary note by *unfolding the genuine construction* of an obvious passage in one of the odes of Horace, which, he says, no person had before discovered, though every school-boy capable of reading five lines in that author must have understood it exactly in the same sense at the first glance.

497, 498. Ne quædam cogas inmani maxumitate
Esse; supra quod jam docui non esse probare.

To *posse probare*, or *probari*, he prefers the reading of the MSS. examined by Pius.

501. Aurea, pavonum ridenti inbuta lepore,
Secla, novo rerum superata colore, jacerent:
Et contemptus odor myrrhæ mellisque sapores.

He has given in his text, *Pepla*—*Contemptus sudos smyrnæ*—*pepla* from Burman's conjecture; the other alterations from the traces of the old readings. In support of the *sudos smyrnæ*, he has aptly produced, from Euripides, *σμυρνῆς ἰδρωτὰ*; but perhaps something might be said in behalf of the discarded *secla*.

533. *Magis* is adopted from MSS. in lieu of *minus*, which is the reading of most modern editions.

613. Per terrarum orbeis——

The editors who have inserted *orbem* for *orbeis* are accused, in strong terms, of presumption and ignorance.

629, &c. Heic armata manus, Curetas nomine Græci
Quos memorant Phrygios, inter se forte catenas
Ludunt.

So the text appears in Havercamp's edition; but Mr. Wakefield has given, from conjecture, *forte catervis*.

658. He has restored the reading of the MSS. *dum verâ re tamen ipse*. Most of the editors had preferred the supposed emendation of Lambinus, *dum re non sit tamen apse*.

663, 664. Dissimili vivunt specie, retinente parentem
Naturam.

So he has published from MSS. The common editions have *retinentque parentum*.

668. Ossa, cruor, venæ, color——

He has ventured to eject *calor*, the established word, from the text.

716. Vitaleis motus consentire, atque animari.

Some copies have *imitari*, which he alters to *initari*.

800, &c. Pluma columbarum quo pacto in sole videtur,
 Quæ sita cervices circum collumque coronat.
 Namque aliâ fit, utei claro fit rubra pyropo;
 Interdum quodam sensu fit, utei videatur
 Inter cœruleum virides miscere smaragdos.

Instead of *cœruleum*, Bentley conjectures *beryllum*; upon which Mr. Wakefield remarks; 'Præclare, ut omnia, vir perspicacissimus; et cui laudem integram loci, successu maximo meâ ex divinatione restituti, lubenter defero.' But he thinks the letters of the emendation rather too remote from the old reading, and the colours of the beryl and emerald too similar. He therefore reads, *curalium*, which he has accordingly admitted into his text. The whole note is too long for insertion; but we shall transcribe the latter part of it.

'His finem imponet locus Philonis Judæi luculentissimus.—
 Τον δ' αυχενα της περιστερας εν ήλιακαις αυγαις ου κατενοησας μυριας
 χρωματων αλλαττοντα ιδεας; η ουχι φοινικουν, και κυανουν, πυρωπον
 τε αυ και ανθρακοειδες, ετι δε ωχρον και ερυθρον, (i. e. *viridem et*
tubrum) και αλλα παντοδαπα ισχει χρωματα, ων ουδε τας κλησεις
 εραδιον απομνημονευσαι;—Ecce! post intervallum temporis, incidi-
 mus in Sereni Samonici locum, silentium etiam maxime pervicaci-
 bus imponere valentem; et vituperatores nostros deridendos potius
 facturum, quam derisores. Ille scriptor, qui circa annum 240
 post Christum floruit, exemplaribus Lucretii haud paullo sincerio-
 ribus videtur usus; et ad hos ipsissimos versus, quos tractamus,
 manifestissime alludens, nostram emendationem extra controver-
 siarum fines posuit:

'*Curalium* atque crocum corio connectito felis;
Curalium vero si collonectere velles,
 Ne dubites illi *virides* miscere *smaragdos*.'

909, 910. At nequeant per se partes sentire, *necesse est*;
 Namque *alios* sensus membrorum *respuit* omnis.

Mr. Wakefield has restored this reading, which some editors had altered to *nec esse—alium—res petit*.

936. For *principio*, we find *principiôm* in this edition; and we by no means disapprove the change.

990, &c. Denique cœlesti sumus omnes semine oriundi;
 Omnibus ille idem pater est; unde alma liquenteis

Humoris guttas mater quom Terra recepit,
 Feta parit nitidas fruges, arbustaque læta,
 Et genus humanum; parit omnia secla ferarum;—
 —Quapropter merito maternum nomen adepta est.
 Cedit item retro, de terrâ quod fuit ante,
 In terram; sed quod missum est ex ætheris oris,
 Id rursus cœli relatum templa receptant.
 Nec sic interimit mors res, ut materiai
 Corpora conficiat, sed cœtum dissipat ollis:
 Inde aliis aliud conjungit; et efficit, omnes
 Res ita convertant formas, mutantque colores, &c.

Mr. Wakefield has adduced a similar passage from the Supplices of Euripides; but we are surprised that he should not have recollected a fragment quoted from the Chrysippus of the same poet, by Sextus Empiricus and Philo.

Γαῖα μεγίστη, καὶ Διὸς αἰθήρ,
 Ὅ μιν ἀνθρώπων καὶ θεῶν γενέτωρ,
 Ἡ δ' ὕγροβόλους σταγόνας νοτίας
 Παραδέξαμεν, τικτεῖ θνατούς,
 Τικτεῖ δὲ βόραν, φυλά τε θήρων,
 Ὅθεν οὐκ ἀδίκως
 Μητὴρ πάντων νενομίσται.

Χωρεῖ δ' ὀπίσω, τὰ μιν ἐκ γαίας
 Φυτ' ἐς γαίαν, τὰ δ' ἀπ' αἰθερίου
 Βλαστοντὰ γόνις εἰς οὐρανίον
 Πόλον ἤλθε παλιν· θνήσκει δ' οὐδὲν
 Τῶν γιγνομένων, διακρινόμενον δ'
 Ἄλλο πρὸς ἄλλου
 Μορφήν ἕτεραν ἀπεδείξεν.

In the 12th verse there is another reading, μεταμειβομενον; and, in the 14th, ιδίαν; but Lucretius seems to have followed a copy which had ἕτεραν.

1028, 1029. *Paullatim* is transferred from the latter to the former verse; and *principio* immediately precedes *cœli clarum purumque colorem*. But the editors are too severely treated by their rival on this occasion.

1045. Quid sit ibei porro, quo prospicere usque valet mens,
 Atque animi jactus liber sit, quo velit ipse.

Thus has Mr. Wakefield constituted the text of these verses. In one, *valet* is his own conjecture for *velit*; in the other, he has profited by the various readings.

1100. ——— tum fulmina mittat, et ædeis
 Ipse suas disturbet——

He has given this more elegant reading upon the authority of Lactantius. The editions have *sæpe*.

1172, 1173. Nec tenet, omnia paullatim tabescere, et ire
Ad scopulum, spatio ætatis defessa vetusto.

Ad scopulum is the reading of all the editions, and most of the MSS. but the two Leyden MSS. give *ad copulum*, whence Havercamp conjectures that the poet wrote *Ad capulum*. Pleased with this idea, the present editor has introduced *capulum* into the place which *scopulum* had so long usurped.

(To be continued.)

Lectures in Divinity, delivered in the University of Cambridge, by John Hey, D. D. as Norrisian Professor. 4 Vols. 8vo. 11. Boards. Rivingtons. 1796—8.

THE studies of the university of Cambridge have been supposed to be unfavourable to theology; but we do not think that the apprehension is well-founded; and many illustrious names might be mentioned as instances of the attention and success with which divinity is pursued at that seminary. It has also been supposed that this university is infected with heterodox opinions; and by the institution of the professorship, which occasioned this publication, the world may form some idea of the applicability of the charge. The lectures were attended by a very great concourse of students; they were heard with general approbation; the thirty-nine articles, which were the subjects of disquisition, were, with the explanations, eagerly examined; and such was the opinion of the orthodoxy of the professor, and of the utility of the lectures, that an attendance upon them was deemed by some bishops a requisite introduction to holy orders, and was to all a recommendation.

We entered upon our survey of this work with sentiments favourable to the orthodoxy of Dr. Hey; but a notice at the beginning of the second volume, and a consequent very considerable degree of attention to the points to which he there alludes, greatly diminished our prepossession in his behalf. We shall give the advertisement as it stands before the third book, in which the chief subjects discussed are veracity, falsehood, and subscription to the articles of our church.

‘The author thinks it necessary to declare, that the patronage of the syndics of the university press was founded on their confidence in him, and not on a previous perusal of his manuscript. This declaration seems requisite, lest the syndics should be considered as giving a sanction to some opinions advanced in the first thirteen chapters of the third book.’

The syndics were not the only persons by whom those chapters were disapproved; for we find that they gave an alarm to persons of great dignity in the church; but the professor speaks in such warm terms of his regard for sincerity, that we should do him an injustice if we did not state, in his own words, his feelings upon this subject.

* If any one imagines that I lightly esteem the duty of veracity, or that I look upon it as any mark of an improved mind to be careless about it, he mistakes me exceedingly. Nothing is farther from my wishes, than to lay any foundation for subterfuge or evasive pretences*: I should be sorry to have any man in the world thought a warmer friend to sincerity and simplicity, than myself. I honour and adore them; I abhor deceit; I never deceive any one; at least it is my study to avoid deceiving; I would not deceive a child, nor, when many other men would, a sick person. When I think of the evils which mankind bring on themselves by duplicity and artifice, by simulation and dissimulation, I feel greatly dejected; when I think of the happiness which they might procure by an universal sincerity, nay, which they might immediately enjoy, by a general openness, frankness, and a genuine effusion of their hearts and minds, I feel myself filled and elated with pleasure. —Let no one think so ill of me as to conceive me saying this through ostentation; it is a necessary declaration; made necessary first by the likelihood that the scope of my reasoning may be misapprehended; and next by the alarm which this third book has actually given to some persons of great learning and eminence; who judged of it from the printed heads of lectures †. Vol. ii. P. 12.

The declaration of the author does him honour; but, as we cannot, in mere compliment to his feelings, suppress our sentiments, we are compelled, though unwillingly, to add our apprehensions to those of the two bishops and the syndics. Though we are convinced that the lecturer would not wish to lead his hearers into the labyrinths of error, we must say that he has afforded some ground for the application of bishop

* Bishop Law talks of leading the members of the church "into all the labyrinths of a loose and a perfidious casuistry." On Subscription, p. 22.

† When published in 1783;—bishop Porteus and bishop Hallifax in particular expressed themselves, in letters to me, as entertaining apprehensions concerning some parts of the heads relating to veracity. And I have been lately advised to omit some things, which had been reported from the lectures: no one can be more willing to retract any mistaken position than I am; I claimed the liberty of retracting at the opening of the lectures; but, if I have publicly delivered any thing, it seems best either to retract or publish it. All I say in this book about veracity, seems to me quite a plain series of arguments and observations: not being able to retract what I deem to be such, I think it best to submit them to the judgment of others.

Law's remark to himself; but we do not doubt that some of the syndics will endeavour to avert the evils which might arise, if these chapters should be considered as the established doctrines of the church. The author himself ought to have pointed out the particular opinions to which the syndics could not subscribe; for, as the work appears under their sanction, they may be accused of maintaining and recommending notions repugnant to morality.

As the lectures were very popular at Cambridge, they must have acquired their fame more by the matter, than by the manner in which they were delivered. Aware of his negligence in the latter respect, Dr. Hey offers an excuse which we cannot allow to be valid.

'Some parts of the work now presented to the public may seem to require an apology, as not being composed with that formality, which may be thought requisite. The fact is, these lectures were not written in order to be read; the writing was merely a preparation for speaking. To revise them now, and give them an appearance fit to meet the eye of a critical reader, would be a work of much time, and perhaps of little utility. Writings have often been rendered obscure by too laboured a correction, and by endeavours to reduce matter into the least possible compass. This apology, it is hoped, may suffice, if some expressions are found of rather a familiar sort, and if some remain in the form of queries.'
Vol. i. p. i.

Sheltered under this apology, he pays very little attention to his style, despises selection of words, and is regardless of his periods, of method, of arrangement. He forgets that many allowances will be made for a speaker, which will be denied to a writer, and that a critical reader expects from an academical professor a more dignified mode of expression than is used in a conventicle. We might point out, as objects of emulation, a Blackstone and a Lowth, who did not think the time lost, which was employed in rendering their lectures worthy of being read by the critic and the scholar.

We will not extract, as specimens of Dr. Hey's manner, the vulgarisms and uncouth expressions which strike us throughout the work; but there is one word that very frequently occurs, the use of which, when connected with the opinions given in the exceptionable chapters, raises such suspicions in our mind, that we must suggest the necessity of attending to it, both to the readers of this work and to the syndics of the press. *Seem* is the word to which we refer. Every thing *seems* to our author; nothing *is real*. He cannot be convicted of an erroneous opinion; for it is always guarded with this word; and, to use his own language, we never *seem* ourselves to

know, what *seems* to be his opinion upon any subject, however serious he may *seem* to be. It is unnecessary to give particular instances of his multiplied use of this verb and its derivatives.

We shall now briefly consider how far the author's laxity of expression may affect the opinions and doctrines mentioned in the work. To a person not aware of this indecisive manner, the writer would seem to waver or to be indifferent on the doctrine of our Saviour's incarnation, when he says,

'There seem always to have been heresies about the person of Christ, because his incarnation is something above our comprehension.' Vol. i. p. 388.

Now this is mere habit in Dr. Hey; for he means what another would mean in saying, '*far beyond* our comprehension.' An indifferent reader would, from the following passage, suspect him to be a favourer of unlimited despotism, since it represents opposition to the ministry, after every allowance, as blameable.

'Opposition to the measures of the English ministry, in whom is lodged the executive power, when shewn in parliamentary debates, according to theory, must seem inconsistent with loyalty and allegiance; but our feeling, that it has incidentally been the means of preserving many rights of the subject, and occasioning much improvement, mitigates our aversion to it, and almost clears it of blame.' Vol. i. p. 395.

But a distant sentence furnishes what may be called an antidote.

'Philosophers should be accountable finally to the people, as ministers of state are to the main body of the citizens,' Vol. i. p. 435.

That the doctor is not a bigot, appears from his intimating that

'a man may, reasonably and lawfully, live under any one' [*religious establishment*], 'and conform to it, who is not against reforming it; and who allows, that it has imperfections: for one use of establishments is, to promote improvements, or reformations, with the least disturbance possible.' Vol. ii. p. 35.

But he is not so eager for reform, as to wish it to be hastily undertaken.

'Men of the world seem very unreasonable, in not submitting to act under religious establishments; they think themselves above it; all are quacks in divinity; men in active life will talk as re-

formers, lightly and frivolously; and they would not scruple to undertake the task of reforming, without judgment, knowledge, or any consistent plan; and without any probability of not falling into great errors. Would they not act more reasonably, if they conformed to establishments, and only mentioned their ideas of improvement to those, who were prudent and informed enough to judge of them maturely? only pressing them if they saw, that they were opposed more through indolence than reason.' Vol. ii. p. 36.

The observance of outward conformity, amidst a desire of reform, is certainly a *convenient* practice. Thus the same person may be a churchman in London, a kirkman in Edinburgh, a catholic at Rome, and a Mohammedan at Constantinople; he may prostrate himself before the grand lama of Thibet, and kneel under the sacred shower of the priest of the Hottentots. Where-ever we find religious establishments, we may conform—Oh rare doctrine!

The professor would wish the *words* of an oath or a statute to continue, even after the *injunctions* have become obsolete. This is strange absurdity!

'It was once heresy to assert the being of antipodes; suppose a person to have founded a college, when that notion prevailed, and to have required his fellows to abjure, detest, and abhor, as impious and heretical, the doctrine of antipodes; I say, that, when it came to be universally agreed, that any inhabitants of the earth might have antipodes, such requisition became obsolete, or was virtually abrogated: for, if the founder could have been consulted, he would undoubtedly have ordered it to be expunged. Yet the words of the statute ought for ever to continue.' Vol. ii. p. 58.

His loose casuistry is evident where he speaks of the ministers of Geneva, as swearing to doctrines which they do not intend to observe or teach.

'A minister of the church of Geneva is now clear of the crime of prevarication, though there is so strong an appearance of it in the manner of assenting. I do not say, that at first every minister there was innocent; new senses have generally their origin in some degree of falsehood; but, when any man comes to be perfectly understood, he cannot deceive.' Vol. ii. p. 68.

Thus the first Genevese minister who took the oath was a liar; the second was so in a less degree; and the sagacious mathematicians of Cambridge will perhaps inform us, how many years must elapse before the lie vanishes. Upon this ground, there is no necessity of altering the articles of any church; but our author amuses us with a conjecture respecting those of our own church.

‘ I conjecture, that, if it were entrusted to me to form a new set of articles, in order to separate the church of England from all those, which are incapable of carrying on the purposes of religious society with it, I should myself simplify some parts of our present confession; but whether that would be a real improvement, is another question. And that I should do so, can only be matter of conjecture, till I fairly discuss the question in my own mind.—So long as our present articles continue, I must honour them highly, looking back to the times when they were made, whatever might be spared of them in the present times, could men be unanimous about them.’ Vol. ii. p. 202.

From this passage we may judge of his hesitation of character, as he must have paid great attention to the subject for many years, and yet is wholly undetermined.

Whether our readers will entertain the same opinion of Dr. Hey, which he professes to hold of himself, we leave to their decision. He says,

‘ It has seldom happened to me to retract an opinion; which I impute to reasoning with simplicity, and endeavouring not to deceive myself, in order to defend any received or established doctrine.’ Vol. ii. p. 213.

The lecturer gives his assent to the Athanasian creed in a very cold manner. He first observes,

‘ I will submit to the judgment of the candid, whether every sect should not produce a creed, in order to entitle it to toleration? and (leaving the two shorter creeds, as being established) whether something thrown into the Athanasian creed, about the nature of unintelligible doctrines, and of verbal arguments made out of them, might not give satisfaction to many minds?—and lastly, lest the damnatory clauses should still occasion difficulty, whether it would not be better to have the threats in words of scripture, than in words of human composition? whether if Mark xvi. 16, was pronounced, or sung, at the opening and conclusion, instead of the present application of it, and also between the rehearsal of the doctrine of the Trinity and that of the incarnation, in the manner of the Gloria Patri; and instead of “the catholic faith is this,” some other expression was used, such as “the faith we hold is this;” the creed would not be more generally satisfactory, and its solemnity be at least equally great?—If Mark xvi. 16. appeared, after all, too striking and alarming, perhaps that expression so often repeated in scripture, might sometimes supply its place; “He that hath ears to hear, let him hear,” Vol. iii, p. 417.

He then adds,

‘ I must confess, that, if these passages of scripture were in-

roduced, I should give my suffrage for the continuance of the creed, in all its parts. And I do not decline assenting to it in its present form.' Vol. iii. p. 117.

In the enumeration of writers upon different subjects—an important part of a lecture—we find frequent instances of carelessness. Speaking of the Moravian doctrine, our author says,

'I have no authentic account of the Moravian notion concerning the Trinity, but, from what I have seen of their worship, and heard, when attending their meetings, of their sermons and hymns, I should conclude, that they take but little notice of the Father of Jesus Christ.' Vol. ii. p. 242.

We could not have conceived that the Norrissian professor would have been unacquainted with La-Trobe's Doctrine of the Unitas Fratrum; a work which gives a particular account of the Moravian opinion on this point. The writers on the articles are strangely flurried over; and this note is added to the account.

'I have seen other writings on the articles mentioned in the catalogues of booksellers, but I have neglected, I perceive, to enter them here.' Vol. ii. p. 211.

(To be continued.)

Naucratia; or Naval Dominion. A Poem. By Henry James Pye. 4to. 5s. sewed. Nicol. 1798.

'YE scenes of nature, by the poet's tongue
In every age, and every climate sung,
Mountains, whose sides eternal forests shade,
Vales, in the flowery robe of spring array'd,
Seats, ever bright in warm description's lay,
Far, far from you the venturous Muses stray!
Sublimar objects, and terrific views,
O'er the rough surge their daring flight pursues;
Far from their long lov'd Naiads while they rove,
Far from the Dryads of each haunted grove;
Ye sea-green guardians of old Ocean's reign,
(Who vex with storms, or soothe his wide domain,)
Bid each rude wave in placid silence sleep,
And gently hail these strangers to the deep. p. 5.

Such is the commencement of the poem. The history of navigation is not a favourable subject for poetry: yet a work upon naval dominion would, if well executed, be popular in

England; and by whom could it be undertaken with such peculiar propriety as by the laureat?

In the brief account of the deluge, the line—

‘A world of waves, unbounded by a shore,’

reminded us of Ovid’s celebrated pleonasm. Mr. Pye does not believe, with Fuller, that ‘all vessels on the water are descended from the loyns (or rather ribs) of Noah’s ark.’ He asserts, with more probability, that

‘His near descendants, long a pastoral train,
Nor spread the sail, nor plough’d the bordering main;’

and he represents the savage of those times as precluded by a brook from enjoying the fruits of the opposite bank, and hopeless of ever attaining the desired object. A rifted oak, thrown by the winds across the brook, first serves him as a bridge, and, when the torrent sweeps it away, suggests to him the idea of a raft. Practice and chance improve the rude navigation.

The voyages of the Phœnicians, the Argonautic expedition, and the Trojan war, are too slightly sketched; and we do not think that enough is said of the memorable fight of Salamis; nor does the author dwell long on the intermediate ages. Early in the second part, we meet with a description of a ship of war.

‘See yon vast fabric o’er the stormy tide
In warlike pomp majestically ride!
Her roomy decks, throng’d by the young and brave,
Look down defiance on the threatening wave;
Her towering masts ascend in giddy height,
Whose lessening summits mock the aching sight;
Aloft, where Britain’s mingled crosses fly,
The holy labarum of liberty.
Her swelling sails, wide spread in ample sweep,
Loom a vast castle floating on the deep;
Dread the long batteries on her side appear,
Denouncing slaughter from their triple tier.
Secure in giant strength, her frame defies
Alike the warring waves, and angry skies.’ p. 26.

This description is different from that of old Fuller, where he asks, ‘who durst be so bold with a few crooked boards nailed together, a stick standing upright, and a rag tied to it, to adventure into the ocean?’

After tracing the general history of navigation, Mr. Pye proceeds to the naval annals of England. He records the defeat of the Spanish armada, and celebrates the admirals who

have defended and honoured their country. He affects to foresee a serious injury to the maritime strength of Great-Britain from the increase of canals. We quote the passage in which he expresses this apprehension (which, we hope, will prove merely visionary), as one of the most animated in the poem.

' Ne'er from the lap of luxury and ease
 Shall spring the hardy warrior of the seas.—
 A toilsome youth the mariner must form,
 Nurs'd on the wave, and cradled in the storm.
 This school thy coasts supply—the unwrought ore
 Wasted from port to port around thy shore,
 The northern mines, that fable stores unfold
 To chase from blazing hearths frore winter's cold;—
 These nurseries have train'd the daring crew
 Through storms and war thy glory to pursue;
 These have thy leaders train'd, and naval fame
 Reads in their rolls her Cook's immortal name.
 O ne'er may Commerce with misdeeming zeal
 Weaken this source, her own, her country's weal,
 And the canal, by tortur'd streams supplied,
 Along our coasts with baleful labour guide,
 Then boast, if war insults our chalky shores,
 It yields safe conduct to our arms and stores.—
 Perish such safety!—ne'er may commerce know
 Safe conduct here but from a vanquish'd foe.—
 Where mountain forests spread their deep'ning shade,
 Where metals lurk beneath the midland glade,
 Where mingled art and industry combine,
 Weave the rich web, the liquid ore refine,
 Let the canal, scoop'd out with plastic care,
 To distant marts the useful produce bear;
 But never may its stagnate waters lave
 The sandy borders of the briny wave,
 Or the rude bargeman's vile inglorious race
 The generous hero of the sea replace.

' O Millbrook! shall my devious feet no more
 Pace the smooth margin of thy pebbly shore?
 No more my eyes, when even the zephyrs sleep,
 View the broad mirror of thy glassy deep,
 Where the reflected spire and bordering shade
 Inverted shine, by softer tint portray'd;
 Or by the dancing moon-beam's silvery gleam
 See the bright ripple of the curling stream,
 While round the passing bark as eddies play,
 A track of trembling radiance marks her way;
 Or as the surge with ineffectual roar
 Spends its rude force on the surrounding shore,

Behold its harmless vengeance idly beat
 With vain and baffled fury at my feet?—
 No more along the channel's azure space
 My sight the ship's expanding sail shall trace,
 Through whose white folds—clad by the leafy year,
 On the green uplands future fleets appear!—
 Now through the stagnate pool, by banks confin'd,
 Rolls the slow barge, dragg'd by the inglorious hind,—
 By vengeance arm'd, ye powers of ocean rise!
 And when full orb'd in equinoctial skies
 The pale moon hangs, and with malignant pride
 Rouses the driving storm, and swells the tide,
 Lift high the trident, and with giant blow
 Lay of vain man the pigmy labours low,
 Chastize the weak presumption that would chain
 The briny surge, and subjugate the main.' P. 68.

He concludes with the spirit of an Englishman.

' Never shall sink Britannia's naval fire
 While rous'd to glory by her Thomson's lyre.—
 Responsive to his lay, her genius long
 In act shall realize the raptur'd song
 His fancy heard—what time the angelic train
 Hail'd the bless'd isle emerging from the main,
 With seraph hand their golden viols strung,
 And to his ear the hymn prophetic sung.—
 " Long as her native oak's strong limbs defy
 The furious blasts that rend her stormy sky,
 Long as her rocky shores the ocean laves,
 Shall Freedom and Britannia rule the waves." P. 76.

From the outline which we have given of the writer's plan, it will not appear to be one that is capable of rendering a heavy subject interesting; nor can much be said in praise of the execution. The versification is sufficiently solemn, without swelling into bombast, and sufficiently harmonious without cloying the ear by perpetual sweetness; but life and vigour are rarely found: there is little that can fix or rouse the attention; and it is not a poem that will be read with extraordinary pleasure. The epithets are in general trite; and there is little originality either of thought or expression. One line, however, must not pass without due praise: the flag of England is called

' The holy labarum of liberty;'

a phrase altogether new and striking: the poet laureat undoubtedly thinks it just also; but, alas! the flag of England is not considered as the ensign of liberty in the east or in the west, or on the shores of Africa.

Genealogical Tables of the Sovereigns of the World, from the earliest to the present Period; exhibiting in each Table their immediate Successors, collateral Branches, and the Duration of their respective Reigns; so constructed as to form a Series of Chronology; and including the Genealogy of many other Personages and Families distinguished in sacred and profane History; particularly all the Nobility of these Kingdoms descended from Princes. By the Rev. William Betham, of Stonham Aspell, Suffolk. Folio. 3l. 3s. Boards, common Paper; 4l. 14s. 6d. second Paper; 6l. 6s. best Paper. Robinsons.

IF any thing could check the folly of human nature, in claiming pre-eminence from a long train of ancestors, the publication of a work like the present would repress the rising emotions of pride in every reflecting mind. From a barren list of names we learn who were the fathers or mothers, or more distant progenitors, of the select few, who are able to trace what is called their descent from antiquity. But, alas! how far back does this antiquity go? We examine the tables, and find that few families attain the age of a thousand years, when the head is discovered to be some base plunderer or some ferocious barbarian. Between this wretch and the favoured son of fortune, how many wander from the father's side to the mother's side, and back again, till scarce a drop of that blood, which is supposed to give high pretensions to the name, flows in the veins of its possessor. We need not suggest to our readers how much these pretensions would be invalidated, if, like Gulliver, we could call up the ancestors 'of the sovereigns of the world,' and compare them with the lists in these tables.

The English are unfortunate (or perhaps fortunate), that, in the genealogical contest, they must give way to many other nations. We can bring no families to vie with those of the true Germans, with the houses of Saxe-Lauenburg, Eisenach, Weimar, Jena, Gotha, Altenburg, &c. We can show no families equally free from the contaminating mixture of ignoble blood. We, indeed, surpass the Germans in the arts and accommodations of life; but, in comparison with them, we suffer a great degradation; for, among us, the blood of the noble is daily mixed with that of the ignoble.

Our author might have made this subject still more familiar to his countrymen, by continuing down, as far as possible, the line of descent from our sovereigns. Edward the Third affords good materials for that purpose. At Cambridge a custom prevails, that a person, tracing his descent from the royal blood, and having some other qualifications, may at the end of two years claim the degree of master of arts, without

examinations or exercises. The descendants of Edward the Third are frequently on the list of claimants; and, when the silk gown is put over the young man's shoulders, he feels, with lively emotions, the royal blood flowing through his veins. Thus honoured, he quits the senate-house; and the first man whom he meets is, perhaps, a person equally or more nearly related to Edward, with a burthen on his shoulders. The royal blood gives pride and a silk gown to the one; but, in the veins of the other, it meets with no respect, because the descendant is a tradesman or mechanic. Yet surely the relatives should be taught to greet each other; and, by comparing their feelings, they may learn to make a proper estimate of their birth. The descendants of Edward the Third are to be seen furnishing rooms at Cambridge, selling different goods at Stirbich fair, and occupying other situations of an inferior kind; and, if the course should be accurately traced, the blood of Edward might be discovered in many thousands of the subjects of his present majesty.

But the advantage to be derived from lowering the pride of family, may, to some of our readers, appear problematical; while the utility of genealogical tables in questions of history will be universally allowed. We therefore wish that some notes had accompanied this work, pointing out the suspicious places in a line of succession.

Among the particulars which strike us, we observe that Mr. Betham has placed St. Peter at the head of the popes; but, though that post might be assigned to him with propriety by a catholic, a protestant should intimate that the place was given to him with a view only of making the tables correspond with the usual lists of those pontiffs. Harding, a royal Dane, and Manfred, a chieftain of the same nation, are mentioned as the heads of the Berkeleys and the Percies; but it is of no consequence to the two families whether such persons ever existed. The table of the kings of the Celts served to amuse us. Man stands at the head, and in the third descent is Mnemosyne, who had by Jupiter the nine Muses, whose names are a clear proof of the small degree of relation in which they stood to the Celtic community. The tables, however, are given in general from the best authorities. The German tables are most correct; but some parts of them are useless. Many of the others will be found useful to the readers of history. The house of Cromwell is particularly well given; and the numerous posterity of that extraordinary man will doubtless be careful to preserve, by a continuation of the table, the memory of this descent.

Upon the whole, the author of this work deserves praise for his patience and perseverance; and every considerable li-

300 *Transactions of the College of Physicians of Philadelphia.*
brary will be deemed imperfect, if the descendants of the
sovereigns of the world do not grace one of its shelves with
their names and titles.

Transactions of the College of Physicians, of Philadelphia.
Vol. I.—Part I. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Dilly.

FOR what cause or reason, a volume, part of which has long been published, has not been completed, we do not know. We have never heard of its continuation; and, when we consider the utility of such a collection, and the vast field of inquiry which lies open to the members of the society, regret is mingled with our surprise. This part of the volume we must now review, as it will be useless to delay our account in the hope of a sequel; and it is necessary to take up this collection before some others of our own country, as, in the latter, extracts have been made from it.

The act of incorporation, and the institutes of the college, are merely of local importance. The discourse of Dr. Rush, pointing out the objects to be pursued by the members, and the great expectations to be formed from their united exertions, though it deserves our commendations, must not detain us, as the object of the address is relative only. Tables of diseases, from 1786 to 1792, taken from the registers of the infirmary, follow. The result is highly creditable to the skill of the faculty; for, of 1198 persons who were admitted, 920 are reported to have been cured, 96 were relieved, and only 62 died; the rest were in a progress of cure.

The first article is a case of curvature of spine, combined with, probably preceded by, paralysis. The cure, from the account, had greatly advanced, and probably may have been completed by frequent caustics and setons.

Dr. Leib relates a case of hydrocephalus internus, cured by mercury internally used, which seemed only efficacious, when accumulated so as to affect the gums. But the disease was occasioned by a blow, and therefore differed from the true idiopathic hydrocephalus.

Dr. Rush describes a case of locked jaw, cured by wine and mercury. It originated from a fracture of part of the jaw-bone, in drawing a tooth; but the effects of cold were combined. The patient drank in twenty-four hours five quarts of wine. Costiveness was evidently a symptom of the disease; for no opium was exhibited.

Dr. Capell, in dissecting rats, found, in the livers of those which were very fat, tubercles containing tæniæ. The envelope of the matrix was thinner, in proportion to the size of the worm; and it was probable that it would burst and dis-

charge the latter into the cavity of the abdomen; but the event was not ascertained.

Dr. Clarkson communicates an account of a case of tetanus, in which, after the most active efforts with every medicine which had been recommended, he failed, though the wound (for it was the consequence of a wound from a rusty nail) was also properly attended to.

Mr. Willday, being tortured by gravel in the kidneys, bathed his loins every morning with cold water, and, immediately afterwards, used great exercise. He found himself considerably relieved.

Dr. Leib, in his second case of hydrocephalus, was not so successful with mercury as he had been in the first: indeed, it was not given regularly. Water was found on dissection; and he contends that each was a true hydrocephalus; but this also was the effect of a violent blow, and therefore was not idiopathic.

The state of the barometer, for the year 1789, is subjoined. The highest point was in January, when the wind was at N.W. the mercury was at 30.5. and continued nearly so for several days. The lowest point was also in January, during a snow storm, and is said to have been 27.7; but this is perhaps an error of the press for 29.7; for in no other instance did the barometer sink to 28°. During the summer months, it was remarkably steady at thirty inches.

A 'singular case of ischuria,' described by Dr. Senter, follows. It seemed to arise from a paralysis of the bladder; and the urine was sometimes discharged by vomiting, sometimes by the navel, and at last *per anum*. The most remarkable circumstance is, that, at one period, while the urine usually contained gravel, that which was brought up by the mouth contained also similar gravel. This is wholly inconsistent with lymphatic absorption; and we are not willing to allow that there is any other communication between the stomach and the bladder. As there are several improbabilities in this case, we suspect that Dr. Senter was, in some circumstances, deceived. Many observations on ischuria are added, where the urine has been discharged by a ptyalism. The subject of these remarks died; and, on dissection, no morbid appearance, connected with the symptoms, could be observed.

Two cases of retroverted uterus are described by Dr. Senter, and the influenza of 1789 by Dr. Rush, who has also related the case of an affection of the head, supposed to be hydropic, which began with dyspepsia, and was cured by mercury.

From the state of the barometer in 1790, we find that the range was from 29.5 to 30.5. The thermometer, in 1791, was from 9 to 95!

A case of inverted uterus is described by Dr. Duffield, which terminated favourably, and was in no other respect uncommon. In an instance mentioned by Dr. Say, the ruptured ligament united, and a slight motion of the joint remained.

Mr. Stocker has stated a case in which the head-ache was relieved by the discharge of a worm from the nostrils, supposed to have been snuffed up from a rose; and Dr. Rush has given an account of a new bitter, prepared from the bark of the root of the *liliodendron tulipifera*.

A case of violent confluent small-pox is communicated also by Dr. Rush. The patient copiously made use of bark, fermented liquors, and animal food. This author recommends calomel in small doses to attenuate the salivary discharge, and thus lessen the secondary fever.

Dr. Hall removed an obstruction in the biliary duct, by electric shocks through the body; and Dr. Tallman describes a case, in which the affusion of cold water cured a tetanus. Dr. Jones's treatment of anthrax affords no new information, though the case was fortunate. In Dr. Leib's hands, alum was successful in dysentery. It has been so under the conduct of many other physicians; but, in this case, its efficacy is rendered doubtful, by the union of large doses of opium with it.

Dr. Moses Bartram communicates some useful practical remarks. Dr. Senter and Dr. Currie disapprove corrosive applications, and particularly that of the corrosive sublimate, in cancers.

A fatal case of hydrophobia, and one of hydrocephalus internus, conclude the volume.

Edmund Oliver. By Charles Lloyd. - 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Lee and Hurst. 1798.

THIS is no common tale. It was written, Mr. Lloyd informs us, with the design of counteracting that generalising spirit which seems so much to have insinuated itself among modern philosophers. This spirit he attacks with ardour, and we think with success. The story is indeed the vehicle of his own opinions.

In *Edmund Oliver* he has attempted to describe a young man 'of excessive sensibility and impetuous desires, tamed down by disappointment.' The book opens with his return to London after a complete estrangement from his family: the subsequent events, with the feelings occasioned by them, are detailed in letters. He meets with Gertrude, the woman whom he almost idolises; but his long absence and neglect had weakened her affection for him, which she has therefore

transferred to another. His letters now grow more impassioned as he becomes acquainted with this circumstance; they are written in a style perhaps only equaled by the flowing fullness of Rousseau.

In the character of Maurice, the author has expressed his own sentiments. This friend attempts to rescue Edmund from the delirium of passion.

'Love, my friend,' (he says) 'is not a propensity to be trifled with. It is the most encroaching, and certainly the most seductive inclination of our souls. But, consider for a moment, is the state of mind in which a man finds himself when engrossed by a violent attachment, one that fits him for performing the offices and duties of life. Human existence to the million is not made up of rapturous agitations, and debilitating day-dreams!—No; the dull realities of life, hard perplexities, ruffling vexations, and trials requiring fortitude and persevering patience to overcome them, fall to the lot of most men.

'Ask the poverty-stricken mother of a young and craving family, what she knows of these transports?—She will understand you not: or if she do, she will turn her head and weep! Ask the virtuous young man, who devotes himself to the maintenance of aged parents, and weds himself to the fate of an overgrown, because neglected family, what he knows of love, and he will return the question with a stifled groan! Ask the philosopher, the patriot, the wise man that speculates, and the good man that exerts himself for the well-being of fellow natures, what they have to do with love, and they will look down upon you as the very insect whom they tread not upon because it has life, and is one of God's creatures, but of its use they have no certain knowledge.' Vol. i. p. 91.

These arguments, as may be supposed, produce no effect on one whose disappointed sensibilities have worked him up almost to phrensy.

'Talk not' (Edmund says) 'to one distracted of the omnipotence of reason! Mock not a madman with the idle vapourings of philosophy! Your words are unmeaning as idiotcy—impotent as the inarticulate air! Every atom of the objects that surround me; every cloud that floats over my head; every sound that my ears drink in; every shaping of existence; even the most characterless toys of life are infected by, and receive importance from my passion! I glue myself to the chair on which she sat; I am lost in moulding her gestures; in recalling the evanescent graces of her figure to my mind! I tread with rapture the very spot which her feet have sanctified. I recall with ecstasy her excruciating farewell tones! I am not myself.—My existence is not my own!—It is her's.—I bask and live in the emanations of her spirit!—This, and more than

this she seems to me when I am separated from her; when she is present, the reality is not equal to the picturings of my imagination. There is a somewhat wanting; but I have not discovered what it is. Her manner intimidates and represses me. She is an object retiring from my grasp; yet my passion for her seems hourly to encrease! How is this, Charles? My spirit is more than ever possessed, yet the reality, the source of my delirium, methinks, is on the wane! All is strange—perplexing—incoherent! My soul is phrensyed!—every pulse beats with agony—every pore aches with sensation! Yet when I examine myself, no adequate object arises! I fall back as in a dream: I shudder at my own weakness; I totter like an unsupported thing; and sink to the darkness of unutterable horror!

‘ Oh God, Charles, all is over! She is gone, gone for ever! I am enduring the torments of hell! Every particle of my frame has a separate existence, and endures an infinite anguish!

‘ My brother has just returned from his morning’s business; and has heard from persons likely to be acquainted with the circumstance, that in a few weeks Gertrude is to be married to this D’Oyley.

‘ No matter! I have sent for wine. I have thrown myself on the couch where she sat; and for this day at least she is mine. My brother is gone. Yes, Charles, not Omnipotence itself could tear her from me now. My existence and her’s must cease together!

‘ I will yield myself to the delirium of this moment’s impulse! By the aid of large draughts of wine, and the very objects being present in connection with which I formerly saw her, I can bring her (not an unreal phantom) before me, and mould it to my purpose! I will interrogate her with the agony of an undone soul! I will look her into madness! and we will embrace with unutterable groans!

‘ Oh Charles!—what am I doing? Every object swims before me! My brain, my brain is as though it were splitting from its very centre! My ideas are intense even to phrensy; and the bodiless creations of my fancy are before me with a fearful, and most actual presence!’ Vol. i. p. 114.

In this disordered state of mind, Oliver forsakes his friends, and enters into the army. Maurice comes to London in quest of him: his search is long ineffectual; but he becomes the protector of Gertrude, now seduced and left friendless.

It is in the characters of Gertrude and her seducer that Mr. Lloyd has exemplified the dangerous effects of the new philosophy; and dangerous indeed would it be, if these effects were to be attributed solely to it! We need not go to the school of Mr. Godwin to account for the villany of a prodigal, who seduces a young woman after he has married an old lady for

her money. Other causes may be found for the fall of the ardent and impassioned Gertrude than her generalising philosophy. Mr. Lloyd has not done justice to the principles that he opposes. Gertrude is subdued by her misfortunes, and, on the birth of her child, swallows poison. This is not consistent with her opinions or with her character. She might have been as conveniently removed by a natural death, if the writer had not thought it necessary to conclude her follies and faults by suicide, that one additional evil might be attributed to her system. We are not the advocates of this system. With Mr. Lloyd, we consider the virtues of domestic life as most conducive to human happiness, because best adapted to human nature. In perusing the letters that elucidate this principle, we are delighted with the strength of intellect, and the rapid and powerful eloquence which they display; but we were not pleased to find the author exaggerating the pernicious tendency of a system, which he would have combated more successfully if he had treated it with more justice.

The hero of the tale is at length discovered by his friend. His impetuous feelings, already weakened by physical suffering, yield to the arguments of reason and religion; and he finally unites himself to a woman of those mild virtues, which are best calculated to perpetuate affection. The letter addressed to her is one of those in which Mr. Lloyd has laid open the most retired feelings of the human heart. An extract from it will please every reader of taste.

‘ I have looked around me.—I have sought with an ungratified spirit, till your name flashed on my restless mind. To be sincere, Edith, I offer you my heart—I offer you the whole of my present self—the whole that passion, disappointments, and severe calamity have not injured.—It is my better part, I trust, which remains, and it would fly a willing sacrifice to your affection, as a shelter from the vexations and rustling business of a wearying world.

‘ When I thus address you, I do not pretend to act from the sudden sympathies of a romantic passion. You know the series of my past feelings.—I could not deceive you were I even to assume the ardour of a first love.—No, Edith, I now want a companion for my solitary moments, a second self, when I would seclude me from the rest of mankind.—There are many hours upon which we cannot calculate, when the heart is much disposed to feel, when its spontaneous and almost indescribable emotions ask for a being to whom we may think aloud; yet on such occasions would the enchantment of the present time be broken, should we, by an express effort, seek even for the most intimate society.

‘ How frequently, in my present cheerless state, have I returned from the intercourse of my friends, from the contemplation of a beautiful scene, to my solitary apartment, with an aching heart.

My sensations accumulate too quick for me to be happy without the constant presence of one to whom I can disburthen them. I have often wept; I have walked backwards and forwards in my room—nay I have even talked to myself in order to tame down those craving emotions which pleaded for the blessing of an equal companion.

‘I am convinced that domestic relations are the necessary and indispensable means of leading the soul to general benevolence.—I have long existed without these relations, because my spirit has ever been agitated with fervors unnatural and almost fatal; but the sabbath, the quiet sabbath of a tranquil and subdued mind, is at length come, and I again recognize those human feelings and wishes, though not in a tumultuous, yet in no feeble degree, which create to the solitary man the necessity of the endearing names of husband and of father.

‘You, Edith, my principles, my feelings, and my habits lead me to address.—When I think of marriage I contemplate a state in which two persons exert themselves for the same end in a constant unanimity of action—it presents the noblest of intellectual aims; it is a relation that affords an everlasting opportunity, nay, even implies the constant duty of making another happy;—it is, perhaps, a necessary scale in the grand process of intellectualization, and perfection.—It calls each soul out of itself—makes it necessarily extend its compass of hopes, and fears; creates the duties of a parent, and evermore presents objects for the tenderest feelings, and most interesting sympathies.’ Vol. ii. p. 286.

It is unnecessary to examine the defects of a story merely intended to convey opinions. A remarkable error has escaped the author; the *daughter* of Gertrude is born a *boy*.

We cannot conclude without strongly recommending this performance, as it possesses the irresistible eloquence of *Werter*, or the *Nouvelle Héloïse*, and contains no principle from which the most rigid moralist or the most devout Christian can justly dissent.

The State of the Poor: or, an History of the Labouring Classes in England. By Sir Frederic Morton Eden, Baronet. (Concluded from p. 84.)

IN the second book of this work, the national establishment for the poor, the laws relating to them, Mr. Pitt's alterations, and the improvements which have been proposed, are ably discussed. In this part Sir Frederic examines the propriety of our apprenticeship for seven years. It is evident that the time requisite for learning a trade must vary according to the difficulties of the business; and it is therefore absurd to require

so great a length of time for easy trades, as for those which are difficult. We may add, that it seems unjust to permit either parents or parochial officers to bind children for too long a period. We agree with our author, that a wise legislature will take the first opportunity of making alterations in this and other particulars; and the following remarks point out the general failing of legislative bodies.

‘ Those who are of opinion that the legislature are unnecessarily solicitous to provide, by means of apprenticeship, a due course of instruction for artisans and manufacturers, may, perhaps, be likewise inclined to think, that laws, which point out particular lines of industry to those who have attained that age at which they are usually deemed to be competent to the management of their own concerns, are still more futile and injudicious. Such laws, however, have, more or less, existed in all ages, and in all countries; and few writers have entered into the extensive field of political speculation, without recommending new institutions, and suggesting various plausible expedients, for rendering the people industrious, orderly, and economical. It seems, moreover, very problematical, whether a government ever attempted directly to regulate the course of industry, without producing considerable mischief. The excellence of legislation may, perhaps, be but estimated according as it leaves the individual exertion more or less unshackled. It is this exertion, (and not the superintending power of the state, which is so often, unthinkingly, extolled, as the immediate creator of social good, and as often unjustifiably condemned, as the immediate cause of social evil,) which, by its patient plodding labours, erects the edifice of national grandeur.’ Vol. i. p. 437.

The diet and clothing of the poor, in various counties, are compared; and many dishes are recommended, which we presume will be cooked in the cheap kitchens now established in different parts of the metropolis. Thus the poor will gradually be taught to improve their cookery; but we are apprehensive that these attempts to keep them in the cheapest manner, will end in a depreciation of their labour.

With regard to the effect of houses of industry, we concur with this writer, who observes, that

‘ A kind of glare, which obscures the truth, has been thrown upon work-houses and houses of industry, where, I am induced to believe, from experience and actual observation, the saving arises from the decreased expence, in accommodations, which takes place in consequence of a number of poor being collected together. The advantages, therefore, are only negative: and so far, and no farther, have they merit. This is the merit of the public kitchen of Munich, and of the much-vaunted work-house of Shrewsbury.’ Vol. i. p. 586.

On benefit societies are some useful hints ; and it is remarked, that the legislature ought to be cautious of interfering at all with them ; for the advantage derived from the last interference of the parliament is very problematical.

The second and third volumes contain the information which the author has, with great industry, collected from all quarters. This is arranged under proper heads ; and the politician may collect from these volumes many good hints for the improvement of the kingdom.

The intelligence concerning Cumberland is particularly copious. Of the parish of Bromfield, in that county, it is said, that

‘ A district less liable to extrinsic, or adventitious influence, than this parish could not easily be named : yet, even here, it appears, that within the last twenty years, the poor’s rates have nearly doubled ; this is the more extraordinary, as there are no manufactories in the parish ; and indeed hardly any other inhabitants in it besides a working peasantry. Much of the period herein specified has been blessed with peace : neither have the people there been visited with any uncommon calamities ; nor even with very hard times. Taking both men and women into the account, the present rates here impose a tax of six shillings and sixpence per poll : and if rated by the actual rent of the land, probably, about ninepence in the pound : in Blencogo, only, it seems not to exceed sixpence in the pound. All perhaps that is necessary to add, is, that the expences of litigations, and removals, are not included in this estimate : and that there are no box clubs, or friendly societies in the parish ; and above all, no benefactions, or regular annual charities bequeathed to the poor, a circumstance which, it has been observed in other districts, always has a considerable influence on the poor’s rates. October, 1793.’ Vol. ii. p. 49.

A remarkable instance of ‘ Cumberland œconomy ’ is given in the report from Cumwhitton, dated ‘ April, 1796.’ An old woman had an annual income of only 4l. 1s. 7½d. ; and she is represented as living contentedly upon that poor pittance.

‘ This woman’s earnings are small ; but she makes her expences correspond. She seems perfectly happy, content and cheerful ; and always takes care to avoid debt. Her father rented a small farm of only 8l. a year ; and as he was very lame, she was obliged to do the greatest part of the work. On his death she disposed of the stock, &c. and after discharging all his debts and funeral expences, a surplus of 10l. remained, which she placed in the hands of her landlord ; the interest of which pays her rent. When she was able to reap in harvest, she earned a little more money ; yet, notwithstanding her present scanty income, she has no thoughts of applying to the parish : she receives no assistance whatever from her

friends. Her common diet is hasty-pudding, milk, butter, and potatoes. She was brought up in a most frugal manner, and feels no inconvenience from being obliged to live so abstemiously. She never had a tea-pot in her house, at any period of her life.' Vol. ii. p. 75.

In some of the townships of Monkwearmouth, in the bishopric of Durham, we find that

'The poor are' [*January, 1796*] 'in a miserable condition; nor has any judicious plan yet been adopted for administering relief to them in a beneficial manner. In the northern townships the rates have risen to an enormous height, particularly since the commencement of the war. Part, however, of their rise, may, without imputing any thing to mismanagement, be fairly ascribed to the great increase in trade, population, buildings; and, I hope I may add, without being considered paradoxical, that the influx of wealth, which this parish has experienced within the last 40 years, has produced a more than proportionable addition of poor.' Vol. ii. p. 162.

In reading the following paragraph of the report from Ashford in Kent, we lamented the applicability of the observation to many other places.

'Poverty here, is generally ascribed to the low price of wages, and the high price of provisions: they suit each other very well in summer, but not in winter. The poor, in most parts of Kent, ten years ago, always eat meat daily: they now seldom taste it in winter, except they reside in a poor-house. Private brewing, even amongst small farmers, is at an end. The poor drink tea at all their meals. This beverage, and bread, potatoes, and cheese, constitute their usual diet. Labourers only eat barley or oat bread. Even household bread is scarcely ever used: they buy the finest wheaten bread, and declare, (what I much doubt,) that brown bread disorders their bowels. Bakers do not now make, as they formerly did, bread of unsifted flour: at some farmers houses, however, it is still made of flour, as it comes from the mill; but this practice is going much into disuse. 20 years ago, scarcely any other than brown bread was used.' Vol. ii. p. 280.

The poor, we think, act rightly in rejecting brown bread. It is a very proper nourishment for the rich, who can temper it with many other kinds of food; but, if the poor man can scarcely get any provisions besides bread, it is œconomy in him to have the best that he can procure. Does not this paragraph cry out to the legislature, Restore to the poor the power of brewing?

Passing from Kent into Lancashire (for the counties are

arranged in alphabetical order), we observe with pleasure, that, though the rates have rapidly increased at Liverpool,

‘ the resources of wealth are more than adequate to the calls of charity ; and that the poor, although more numerous, and proportionably more expensive than they were 30 years ago, are yet less burthensome to the town, than when it's trade was less flourishing, and it's parochial expenditure more contracted.’ Vol. ii. p. 328.

‘ The poor are partly maintained in the work-house, and partly relieved at home. The work-house is well situated, on a rising ground, in a detached situation ; and is, in many respects, constructed upon an eligible plan. The old people, in particular, are provided with lodging, in a most judicious manner : each apartment consists of three small rooms, in which are 1 fire-place and 4 beds, and is inhabited by 8 or 10 persons. These habitations are furnished with beds, chairs, and other little articles of domestic use, that the inmates may possess ; who, being thus detached from the rest of the poor, may consider themselves as comfortably lodged as in a secluded cottage ; and thus enjoy, in some degree, (even in a work-house,) the comforts of a private fire-side.’ Vol. ii. p. 329.

The report from Monmouth furnishes a striking instance of the high spirit of a labourer, who endures extreme poverty in his own house, rather than go to the work-house.

‘ Samuel Price, a labourer, 52 years old, has a wife and 9 children, viz. a girl aged 17, who is subject to fits, and not able to work ; a boy, aged 16, at service ; a boy, 15, at home ; another boy, 14, at home ; 3 girls, 12, 10, and 8 years old ; a boy, 3, and another boy, 1½ years old ; the wife is now pregnant.

The father, mostly, works for a gentleman at 8s. a week, and beer ; except in hay and corn harvest, when he has 1s. 6d. a day, and victuals ; annual amount about

21 3 9

The boy, who is 15 years old, earns, by going on errands, &c. about 1s. a week

2 12 0

The other children earn nothing, but pick sticks for fuel in the winter

0 0 0

The wife earns, by baking bread for sale, annually about

1 5 0

Total income £ 25 0 0

Expences.

The man says, bread at present costs him about 9s. a week throughout the year, and that he could use more if he could get it

£ 23 8 0

Eden's State of the Poor.

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Brought forward	-	-	-	£ 23 8 0
Butter and cheese, about 6d. a week; he uses neither meat nor beer	-	-	-	1 6 0
Tea and sugar, about 4d. do.	-	-	-	0 17 4
Potatoes, 6d. a week	-	-	-	1 6 0
Fuel	-	-	-	0 8 8
House-rent	-	-	-	2 2 0
Soap, candle, thread, &c. about	-	-	-	1 6 0
				<hr/>
Total expences				£ 30 14 0
				<hr/>

‘ Here appears a deficiency of 5l. 14s.; yet, the man says, his children mostly go without shoes and stockings, and that the cloaths worn by him and his family are, mostly, if not wholly, given them by charitable people. The gentleman, for whom this labourer works, allows him about 3 pints of milk a day, which, with a little bread, serves his children for breakfast; his wife drinks tea: their dinner is, bread, potatoes, and salt, sometimes a little fat or dripping, if it can be procured cheap: their supper, generally, bread, or potatoes. The man says, his family is little more than half supplied with what they could eat. He rents his house of the corporation of Monmouth, at 2 guineas a year; but not being able to pay his rent, he says, they lately seized on all his working tools, some of his furniture, &c. and sold them, so that he is obliged to borrow spades, axes, &c.: he applied to the parish for relief; which they offered, on condition that he would come into the poor-house with all his family; which he has hitherto refused to do. From farther enquiry, it appears, that the man is honest and industrious. He is determined to remain in his house, in defiance of the corporation. His children, having been bred up in idleness, and in the most abject illiterate state, (although several of them have been at service,) are so saucy, that no person will employ them.’
Vol. ii. P. 448.

Surely an honest and industrious man, as this is represented to be, deserves better treatment from his neighbours.

At Newark, a similar spirit has been evinced.

‘ The badge appointed by the act of king William, is worn’ [May, 1795] ‘ by the paupers of this parish: it was laid aside a few years ago, but the poor having increased very much, it was resumed last year; and the consequence has been, that several persons, who had before made regular applications to the parish, have now declined asking for relief.’ Vol. ii. P. 571.

The order for the resumption of a badge which had been disused, may be thought to argue a want of delicacy in the overseers of the poor at Newark; but, in another point, some

portion of that quality is shown. In the work-house, which is one of the best in England,

'A few apartments, rather neater than the rest, are appointed for the reception of such persons as have been unfortunately precipitated from an easy station in life, to the humiliating condition of subsisting on a parochial allowance; and their situation receives every attention, that humanity can dictate.' Vol. ii. p. 571.

The two following extracts are submitted to the consideration of the advocates for houses of industry.

'Notwithstanding the promised advantages of this institution, [*the house of industry at Ellesmere*] it is said that the incorporated parishes are, in general, now heartily sorry that they ever engaged in the erection of an house of industry.' Vol. ii. p. 619.

'At Tatingstone, 6 miles from Ipswich, there is a house of industry, which was incorporated in 1765: one-fourth of their original debt has been paid off; but the corporation is now under the necessity of applying to parliament for authority to increase the rates. The 25 parishes incorporated, are almost unanimous in wishing to have the corporation dissolved; as they think they can maintain their poor at less expence, and with more comforts, at home.' Vol. ii. p. 692.

The account of Burwash in Suffex is calculated to excite unpleasing reflections.

'The parish of Burwash is situated about 6 miles to the east of Mayfield. It contains about 230 houses, and 1100 inhabitants. Of the land, about 5000 acres are cultivated; 1200 are wood; and 200 are common, of little value. The rental exceeds 3100l. a year.

		£.	s.	d.	
The expences for the poor in 1776 were		470	12	3	} From the returns made to parliament in 1786.
The assessments	in 1783	545	2	10	
Ditto	in 1784	658	17	0	
Ditto	in 1785	700	16	5	

s. d.

The poor's rates were 4 6 in the pound in 1793.

5 3 - in 1794.

6 3 - in 1795, and raised about 900l.

'Twenty years ago, their whole amount was about 550l.; thirty years ago, they did not exceed 400l. Agriculture is the only employment in the parish.

'From this short, though singular, account, it appears, that one fourth of the population of the parish are paupers; that nearly one third of its rental goes to the support of the poor; and that it's

expences, in this way, are daily and rapidly increasing. June 1796.' Vol. iii. p. 727.

Those who have considered the question of the benefits of commonage, should attend to the report from Sutton-Colefield, in Warwickshire. This parish

' is divided into 4 quarters, each of which has an overseer. The poor here, besides the right of commonage, have this peculiar privilege, that every house-keeper may take in one acre of common, and plough it 4 years: and the 5th year, he must sow it with clover, and lay it to the common again; after which he may take another acre, and work it in the like manner. By this method, about 400 acres of common are constantly kept in tillage. It might be supposed, that, with these extraordinary privileges, the poor were in a most comfortable condition: this is, however, far from being the case: the poor are numerous, and the rates high; and this parish, among others, affords an unequivocal proof, that a right of common does not add, either to the comforts, or the happiness of the poor. Aug. 1795.' Vol. iii. p. 749.

In the neighbourhood of Ecclesfield, in Yorkshire, the poor fare wretchedly.

' Oat-bread is very generally used among the labouring poor: they eat water-pottage twice, and sometimes three times, a day: it is made with boiling water, oatmeal, and onions; to which sometimes a little butter is added: the proportions of oatmeal and butter have been much lessened since the rise in the price of those articles took place; and it is not an uncommon thing, at this season, for the poor to dine partly on nettles; which they boil, and season with a little salt and pepper.' Vol. iii. p. 814.

At the end of the parochial reports, we find a copious Appendix, containing tables of the price of provisions and labour at different periods and in different places, acts of parliament respecting the poor, heads of Mr. Pitt's proposed plan, and other papers connected with the same subject.

Just remarks are made upon the utility of the tables above-mentioned. We will quote the pleasing passage in which those observations occur.

' The historian, who wishes to record the progress of society, will not confine himself to a recital of public transactions: he will often explore the recesses of domestic life; and minutely detail the employments, the manners, and the comforts, of different ranks in society, in order to exemplify, (for it is only by such details that he can properly exemplify,) the excellence or defects of political institutions. It is not on the wide expanse of the ocean that the unbounded trade of Great Britain can be investigated: her ports, her dock-yards, her warehouses, and even her retail-shops must be vi-

sited by those who wish to acquire an adequate idea of the magnitude of her commercial concerns. So, the annalist, who wishes to inform, must often quit the splendid scenes of national glory, and condescend to particularize the humbler occupations of mankind. Hume is, perhaps, the only one of our modern historians, who has justly appreciated the value of information, which, before his time, had been usually deemed frivolous and unimportant; but which, attentively considered, is highly illustrative of the state of agriculture and the other arts: and often very satisfactorily solves the important question;—whether the condition of society is retrograde, stationary, or progressive. Thus, I conceive, a chronological account of the prices of labour and of commodities, (however lightly some may esteem such objects of enquiry,) would alone, (when it could be procured,) furnish a complete epitome of the most important branch of history; for it would enable us to judge, what quantities of the necessaries and conveniences of life equal portions of labour have procured at different periods; or, in other words, to determine, whether the great business of human life has been conducted with more or less facility. If we can decide that the various classes of the nation, by their ordinary strength and industry, are now better supplied with these essential articles than the people at the Revolution; and still better than their rude forefathers at the Conquest; we have an indubitable proof of the advanced, and advancing, state of society.' Vol. iii. p. iii.

From the account which we have given of this work, our readers will, we are persuaded, agree with us, that its author deserves well of the public. He has laid the basis for true political investigation; and there are two classes of our readers, to whom almost every page is interesting—members of parliament and justices of the peace. Both are frequently required to take into consideration the state of the poor; and we have had frequent instances of the crude notions, which, from want of general information, they are apt to entertain upon this subject. If every bench of justices would order a copy of this work to be placed near the publications of Burn and Blackstone, they would facilitate the dissemination of useful knowledge in their districts, and might assist the writer in his future inquiries; for we cannot think that he will rest contented with his present labours; and he deserves the utmost encouragement from every lover of his country. Some regulations proposed to the legislature have very properly been rejected: but we could wish that a simple one might be adopted, obliging every parish to print annually an account of its expenditure on the poor, and of the rates; by which means not only our author would easily acquire information, but each district would gradually become sensible of the difference between true and false œconomy.

A Complete System of Pleading: comprehending the most approved Precedents and Forms of Practice; chiefly consisting of such as have never before been printed: with an Index to the principal Work, incorporating and making it a Continuation of Townshend's and Cornwall's Tables, to the present Time; as well as an Index of Reference to all the ancient and modern Entries extant. By John Wentworth, Esq. of the Inner Temple, Barrister at Law. Vol. III. containing Assumpsit and Covenant. Vol. IV. and the first of the Criminal Division, containing Indictments, Informations, &c. 8vo. Boards. 12s. each. Robinsons. 1797.*

WE congratulate Mr. Wentworth on the progress of his laborious undertaking, in which much professional industry has been employed. The third volume

‘contains the remainder of Declarations in Assumpsit, not reducible to any distinct head. The pleas, replications, rejoinders, &c. in Assumpsit, and an index complete to the pleas, replications, &c. in Assumpsit only, and part of Covenant.’ p. v.

The writer thus accounts for an apparent incorrectness in the collocation of some of the precedents in this volume:

‘In the former part of the present volume, there may appear to the critical reader to be precedents which could have been ranged under proper and distinct heads, as Assumpsit to repay money—against a master of a ship—and for contribution to party-walls; but the student will find the precedents in their proper place in the index, and the pleader will perceive from perusing the precedent, the anomaly which justifies classing them in the number of those not reducible to any distinct head. *Ex. gr.* to repay ‘insurance’ money; an ‘action for contribution to party-walls,’ is more aptly called by lawyers an action on the statute. But although the statute raises the duty, yet, as in the form of declaring, there is something necessary to be averred, to have been done and performed by the plaintiff, namely, the building, &c. before he can call upon defendant to perform his part; I have thought proper to refer this and similar cases to the head of anomalies. *Indebitatus Assumpsit* is considered to be the general head for this sort of action, and I have given one form in the first volume, but I was then, and still am at a loss to define Assumpsit General from what pleaders call *Special.*’ p. v.

Law is a science which abounds with anomalies and exceptions. We therefore do not wonder, that, in a very intricate practical branch of the profession, perfect nicety of arrangement should be extremely difficult. We feel, however,

some surprise at Mr. Wentworth's assertion, that he is at a loss to define the difference between *Assumpsit general* and what pleaders call *special*. As reviewers, we might without disgrace acknowledge our ignorance of the *arcana* of special pleading; but it appears to us, that there is a very intelligible distinction between the two species of *Assumpsit* mentioned. As a controversy of this kind, however, would be uninteresting to a majority of our readers, we shall decline entering into it: and, with respect to the *special pleaders* themselves, politeness forbids us to suppose that they adopt in *practice* a distinction which upon *principle* they do not clearly understand.

The fourth volume contains a selection of precedents adapted to the various titles in the criminal law. This part of the work will form a very useful addition to the scanty number of crown precedents, exclusively in print. In the preface to this volume there are some remarks on our criminal jurisprudence, which, though not distinguished by striking novelty, are recommended by sense and humanity.

‘ The causes of the disproportion, in many instances, between the offence and the punishment with us, may be traced partly to the mistaken notion, that crimes are best prevented by severity; partly to abuses and offences which once called for vigorous redress and exemplary penalties, that have now ceased to be formidable; and partly to the penal statutes having grown up into their present bulk, just as the growing depravities attendant on national prosperity pointed out the necessity of them, and to their never having been subjected at any time to a review which might balance and adjust them. It is this review which appears to me to be almost the only thing wanting to make our criminal code more perfect and less liable to objection; many of our neighbours on the continent have set an example of improving this important branch of jurisprudence, and have derived innumerable practical advantages from it.

‘ How much then is it to be desired (and here, I am certain, I speak the sentiments of the whole profession) that there may be found, at no distant period, in the senate, a temperate legislator, both qualified and ambitious to undertake a task so momentous and delicate; one who shall add to professional accuracy the ampler views of the statesman, who will remember with pleasure, that if much is to be cut off, more is to be preserved; who shall love to repair rather than to rebuild, or impair the fabric by removing its foundation, nor yet be so tender of what he finds established as not to dare oppose the tyranny of custom (whether arisen from the causes alluded to, or the practice of the administration of justice, criminal or civil), where ever it leads to consequences palpably injurious or absurd.’ P. v.

We fear that so desirable a reform will not speedily take place, when we consider the almost constant avocations of the judges, and the press of business on the other law officers of the crown. These honourable servants of the public are certainly best qualified to perform the task in question; but it would be unjust to require them to undertake it without a proper recompense for the emolument or the relaxation which they would in that case be compelled to sacrifice.

Stapeliae Novæ: or, a Collection of several new Species of that Genus; discovered in the interior Parts of Africa. By Francis Maffon. Fascic. I—IV. 4to. Nicol. 1796—8.

IN our account of the travels of M. Thunberg *, we incidentally noticed his companion Mr. Maffon, and referred to the present beautiful plates. We then styled the stapelia the camel of the vegetable world, as it contains a supply of water, which secures it from the fatal effects of long-continued drought, and enables it to exist in regions, where neither the air nor the soil can afford more than irregular, and often scanty, supplies of moisture. The uninformed botanist may obtain, from various specimens of the common house-leek, a general idea of the habits and appearance of these succulent plants; and, in the hot-houses, he may see various aloes, ficoids, and thistles, which flourish in the driest earth. The inquirers into vegetable nature suppose, that the moisture of the stapelia is attracted from the air, and the plant supplied by its roots. To this, as a general process, nothing can be objected; but these plants continue to flourish in torrid regions, where no moisture exists in the air, and where the ground is equally arid. It is probable that they absorb unusually large quantities of fluid, and retain it to supply the deficiency of drier seasons. Their roots seem to absorb fluids with peculiar activity, and the leaves to perspire in a very small degree.

In our review of the travels of the two Swedish naturalists, Sparrman and Thunberg, we gave a general idea of the country in the neighbourhood of the Cape. On the north, and particularly on the north-west, are extensive sandy deserts, incapable of cultivation. The interior part is more mountainous; and, on the sides of the mountains, we chiefly find the laborious exertions of the colonists. These deserts are valuable only to the botanist, who finds in them plants adapted to the arid soil and the precarious supplies of rain, and detects the resources of nature in situations, of which, as he had no

* See our last volume, p. 521.

former example, he could form no just idea. The neighbouring mountains afforded retreats to a vast number of animals, before the colonists had pursued them in their native haunts, particularly the elephant, rhinoceros, camelopardalis, and hippopotamus. The birds are numerous, as many escape from the burning sands of Africa to this comparatively temperate clime. Many of the quadrupeds have been described by Sparrman, le Vaillant, and Thunberg; but, of the birds, we have received more imperfect accounts. From Mr. Masson we have had various specimens of plants, which are described in the *Hortus Kewensis* of the late intelligent and industrious Mr. Aiton. The promised *Flora Capensis* of Thunberg has not yet, we believe, appeared: we have only seen the *Prodromus*.

The genus *stapelia* forms a striking feature in the vegetable beauty of these sterile regions: it contributes to enliven the desert, though it often tantalises the traveller with hopes of food for himself and his famished cattle. The beauty, however, is comparative only. The flower usually rests on its succulent leaf, exhibiting lurid hues, which are sometimes varied by an elegant arrangement of its unpleasing tints, and breathing an hepatic air, so strongly resembling the smell of putrid animal food, as to induce the fly in this country to select it as its nidus. In the plates before us, these plants, with their flowers, are represented with elegance and fidelity, though with a brilliancy of colour a little heightened, as far as we can judge from our observation of some of the species in our own climate.

Forty new *stapeliae* are represented in four fasciculi. Some of them have seemingly been described by Thunberg, but so briefly, as to prevent an ascertainment of their identity. The first species is certainly described by that naturalist—the *f. ciliata*, from the ciliated margin of the corolla: the *f. reticulata*, *venusta*, *guttata*, *humilis*, &c. are new.

The next fasciculus contains also new species—the *f. grandiflora*, *ambigua*, *pulvinata*, &c.

The *f. pilifera*, of the third fasciculus, has been described in the *Prodromus* of Thunberg, and the *f. articulata* (perhaps the *f. mamillaris* of Linnæus) by Aiton. The *f. pedunculata*, *divaricata*, *punctata*, &c. are new. The *f. pedunculata*, of which the flowers are on high upright footstalks, forms an exception to the general habit of the genus. The *f. decoræ* and *elegans*, are denominated from the beauty and elegance of the plant rather than the flowers. The joints of the *f. articulata* are eaten raw by the Hottentots, and pickled by the colonists.

The fourth fasciculus comprehends, among other species, a very beautiful *stapelia*, the *pruinosa*. A plant of this species

flowered in Kew gardens, while the work was in the press. The *f. pulla* has been described in the *Hortus Kewensis*; the *incarnata* in Thunberg's *Prodromus*. The *f. ramosa*, *arida*, *parviflora*, &c. are new.

Upon the whole, these fasciculi are equally elegant and correct: they add greatly to our knowledge of nature, as well as of this rare genus of plants.

The Life of Catharine II. Empress of Russia. An enlarged Translation from the French. With seven Portraits elegantly engraved, and a correct Map of the Russian Empire. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman. 1798.

WHEN the task of translating an historical work is undertaken by a person who had long resided in the country to which it relates, and who had studiously endeavoured to collect the best intelligence concerning its affairs, some improvement of the original, in point of accurate information, may reasonably be expected. On this ground, the present work appears under favourable auspices, as Mr. Tooke, the well-known describer of the Russian empire, is understood to be the translator and the extender of the French account of the life and reign of the late empress.

Referring the reader to our analysis of the original work*, we proceed to observe, that the letters from Tom Drawer to Mr. Pitt have not been translated by Mr. Tooke, who has given, in lieu of them, a succinct statistic account of the Russian empire.

Among the additions which we find in the first of the three volumes, we meet with a weak attempt to vindicate the empress from the guilt of the murder of her husband.

* The real manner in which the czar came by his death is, after all, one of those events over which, it is probable, there will be for ever a veil impenetrable to human eyes, and known only to that being to whom the heart is open, and from whom no secrets are concealed. The partizans that might have retained their attachment to him after his fall; the murmurs of the populace, who quietly permit revolutions to be effected, and afterwards lament those who have fallen their victims; the difficulties arising from keeping in custody a prisoner of such consequence; all these motives in conjunction tend to give credit to the opinion that some hand of uncontrollable authority shortened his days. But the conduct of the empress before that event, and especially for four and

* See Vol. XXI. New Arr. p. 481.

thirty years that she afterwards reigned, is of itself alone a sufficient refutation of so atrocious a calumny, as would fix the guilt of it on her.' Vol. i. p. 342.

The last remark argues a gross ignorance of the true character of Catharine, whose ambition was unbounded, and who, in the gratification of that passion, was totally regardless of that moderation and humanity which she affected (and indeed not infrequently displayed) on ordinary occasions. A princess who had proceeded so far as to depose her husband, and usurp his throne, would not scruple to secure her ill-acquired power by additional atrocity, as she would conceive that the murder of the dethroned prince was essential to her safety; and she who, unprovoked, could ravage neighbouring territories with fire and sword, would not hesitate to give orders for the assassination of an obnoxious prince.

Various additions, tending to render the work more complete and satisfactory, appear in the second and third volumes; but it is not necessary to particularise them.

The following account of Catharine's behaviour, after the suppression of the rebellion of Pugatshoff, will serve as a specimen of the style of the work.

' Shortly after the punishment of Pugatshoff, the empress had a fresh opportunity for displaying her clemency, by granting a pardon to men who, though not guilty of crimes of so heinous a nature as those of that traitor, yet were justly deserving of capital punishment. They were the treasurers of the empire, who had embezzled the public money. Catharine would not even allow them to be brought to trial. She had overcome what was naturally irascible and violent in her temper, and had learnt patience and lenity from the lessons of philosophy. She has also been heard to say, "What I cannot overthrow, I undermine and root up." The heavy burden incurred by her foreign and domestic wars did not prevent the empress from taking off most of the taxes which were laid for their support; and, as if the strength and riches of government in her country increased with its expence, she also abolished a number of the ancient taxes, which were either considered as discouraging to agriculture, or burdensome and oppressive to particular provinces or orders of the people. In the same spirit of beneficence and good policy, she lent great sums of money, interest free, and for a specified term of years, to those provinces which were ruined by the late rebellion; and, to crown a general pardon, she strictly forbade any particulars of that unfortunate affair to be called up, or any reproaches used on its account, but condemned all matters relative to it to perpetual silence and oblivion.

' She also established a number of other regulations, all tending to the security, advantage, and happiness of her subjects, to abolish pernicious distinctions, destroy ruinous monopolies, restrain

the cruelty of punishment, remove oppressive or impolitic restrictions or prohibitions, and to restore mankind to a more equitable degree of equality, in those different ranks which they fill in society. A pardon was also granted to those criminals who had already undergone a long degree of suffering for their crimes; and an ordinance issued to prevent any future criminal prosecution from being admitted, unless commenced within ten years after the date of the charge. Equal humanity was shewn with respect to imprisoned debtors, who, under certain limitations, and in certain circumstances, were released from confinement. All the heirs of the debtors to the crown were discharged from their bonds and obligations.' Vol. ii. p. 361.

We subjoin a part of the character of prince Potemkin, that our readers may compare Mr. Tooke's translation of it with that which we gave in our review of the original work.

' Prince Gregory Alexandrovitch Potemkin was one of the most extraordinary men of his time; but in order to have played so conspicuous a part, he must have been in Russia, and have lived in the reign of Catharine II. In any other country, in any other times, with any other sovereign, he would have been misplaced; and it was a singular stroke of chance that created this man for the period that tallied with him, and brought together and combined all the circumstances with which he could tally.

' In his person were collected the most opposite defects and advantages of every kind. He was avaricious and ostentatious, despotic and popular, inflexible and beneficent, haughty and obliging, politic and confiding, licentious and superstitious, bold and timid, ambitious and indiscreet. Lavish of his bounties to his relations, his mistresses, and his favourites, yet frequently paying neither his household nor his creditors. His consequence always depended on a woman, and he was always unfaithful to her. Nothing could equal the activity of his mind, nor the indolence of his body. No dangers could appal his courage; no difficulties force him to abandon his projects. But the success of an enterprise always brought on disgust.

' He wearied the empire by the number of his posts and the extent of his power. He was himself fatigued with the burden of his existence; envious of all that he did not do, and sick of all that he did. Rest was not grateful to him, nor occupation pleasing. Every thing with him was desultory; business, pleasure, temper, carriage. In every company he had an embarrassed air, and his presence was a restraint on every company. He was morose to all that stood in awe of him, and caressed all such as accosted him with familiarity.

' Ever promising, seldom keeping his word, and never forgetting any thing. None had read less than he; few people were better informed. He had talked with the skilful in all professions, in

all the sciences, in every art. None better knew how to ward forth and appropriate to himself the knowledge of others. In conversation he would have astonished a scholar, an artist, an artizan, and a divine. His information was not deep, but it was very extensive. He never dived into a subject, but he spoke well on all subjects.' Vol. iii. p. 389.

The translation is in general faithful, as far as we have compared it with the original; and, though the diction is frequently incorrect, the information contained in the work is important and valuable.

Mythology compared with History; or, the Fables of the Ancients elucidated from historical Records. For the Use of Young Persons. To which is now first added, an Enquiry into the Religion of the first Inhabitants of Great Britain. Together with some Account of the ancient Druids. Dedicated to the Right Hon. Lady Barbara Pleydell Bouverie. By M. l'Abbé De Tressan. Translated from the French by H. North. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1797.

THE connection of mythology with classical pursuits, and the reference which it bears to the earlier periods of history, give interest to the subject which the abbé de Tressan has thought proper to investigate; and he has executed his task with care and diligence.

The work commences with remarks on the rise of idolatry. The observations, however, are those of Bossuet. In the prosecution of the subject, the abbé treats of the Chaldæic traditions, which combined fabulous narratives with sacred history. He proceeds to state the chief religious opinions of the ancient Egyptians; and intimates, that, while some enlightened individuals entertained just conceptions of the Deity, the people were immersed in the grossest idolatry. He is of opinion, that idolatry first appeared in Egypt and Phœnicia; that among the earliest objects of adoration were two divinities, one supposed to be the author of all good, the other of all evil; and that the worship of the sun and the stars soon followed, or perhaps preceded, that of the two gods.

Speaking of the origin of fables, he says,

'Vanity was one of the principal sources of fiction. Truth was found not sufficiently surprising, not sufficiently attractive; they decked her with borrowed ornaments, and thought to magnify the reputation of heroes, by ascribing to them actions they had never performed. They probably even proposed these imaginary models as more powerful incitements to virtue. But by permitting themselves to be thus led away by a taste for the marvellous,

they at laſt deprived illuſtrious men of all the merit they might have poſſeſſed.

‘ For inſtance, when Perſeus ſlays Meduſa, he ſurprizes her ſleeping; if he delivers Andromeda, he has the wings of Mercury. Achilles is clad with impenetrable arms forged by Vulcan. They went ſo far as to lavish on their heroes all the attributes of Gods.

‘ It is thus we are blinded by vanity and other paſſions, which miſs of their intended object, by being carried to exceſs.

‘ Before the invention of letters, great events and brilliant exploits were no otherwiſe recorded, than in the memory of men, or at moſt only by a few obſcure hieroglyphics.

‘ The remembrance of celebrated actions, then, was preſerved by tradition; but experience proves, how ſeldom it is, that even the moſt ſimple narrations are not mixed with ſome embellishing circumſtances.

‘ When in the courſe of time men wiſhed to write theſe actions, they found nothing but confuſed traditions; and, by giving them a place in hiſtory, they have in ſome degree eterniſed fictions. p. 35.

Many fables, he adds, aroſe from an ignorance of natural philoſophy; and a want of acquaintance with ancient hiſtory and chronology was another ſource of fiction.

He chiefly directs his attention to the mythology of the Greeks and Romans. After a claſſification of the deities adored by thoſe nations, he enters upon a particular account of each.

He treats copiouſly of Jupiter. He firſt examines the number of gods who bore that appellation: he then gives the mythology of the principal Jupiter; annexes a leſs problematical hiſtory of his exploits; endeavours to explain ſome of the fictions which relate to him; mentions the different modes of repreſenting him; and ſpeaks of the worſhip which he received.

He thus explains ſome particulars relative to Minerva:

‘ Several inventions were attributed to Minerva; that of the polite arts, the uſe of oil, the art of ſpinning, and ornamental tapeſtry.

‘ Theſe pretended inventions were merely allegorical. Arts and ſciences are the real riches of the mind, and worthy of the patronage of wiſdom.

‘ Oil ſhows, that to acquire knowledge we muſt frequently conſecrate our nights to ſtudy.

‘ The art of ſpinning repreſents the patience and perſeverance neceſſary in proſecuting our works; and by the ornaments of tapeſtry we are ſhown, that it ſhould be our ſtudy to embellish them.

‘ Minerva is ſaid to have proceeded from the head of Jupiter, to expreſs, that wiſdom is not of human invention, but of divine

origin. She is represented coming into the world armed ; becauſe the wiſe, ſupported by a clear conſcience and unſpotted virtue, are able to combat vice, and remain firm under miſfortune. She is deſcribed as a virgin, becauſe wiſdom cannot unite with corruption, or earthly pleaſure. She has no external ornaments, and is of a ſtern countenance, becauſe ſhe needs no borrowed decorations ; ſhe ſhines with equal luſtre when clothed in the ruſſet gown, or inveſted with royal purple. Her aſpect, always noble, inſpires equal love and reſpect, whether under the wrinkles of old age, or the charms and bloom of youth. She is frequently represented holding a diſtaff, and preparing to ſpin, intended to teach us, that we ſhould avoid idleneſs, and, to all others, prefer thoſe employments which are moſt uſeful. Bellona preſided over ſanguinary wars ; it was over the war againſt vice that Minerva preſided. On her head ſhe wears a helmet, having on the top of it an owl. In one hand ſhe holds a lance, and in the other the egis (a ſort of ſhield, covered with the ſkin of a ſerpent ſlain by herſelf, and having in the middle a representation of the head of Meduſa, one of the Gorgons).

‘ This ſhield and armour were uſed by the goddeſs to ſtrike terror into the guilty.

‘ The owl perched upon the helmet was to expreſs, that wiſdom frequently delights to meditate in the ſolemn ſilence and tranquillity of night.’ P. 173.

Of the Grecian Hermes he obſerves, that

‘ Mercury, ſon of Jupiter and Maia, acquired great reputation among the Titan princes.

‘ After the death of his father, Italy, Gaul, and Spain, fell to his lot ; but he was not abſolute ſovereign of them till the death of his uncle Pluto.

‘ This prince poſſeſſing great talents, great addreſs, and even great ſubtlety, travelled into Egypt to acquire a knowledge of the ſciences and cuſtoms of that country. He there learned magic in particular, which was then much in uſe.

‘ He was conſulted by the Titans his relations as an augur, which gave occaſion to the poets to deſcribe him as interpreter of the will of the gods.

‘ In this excursion into Egypt he obtained initiation into all their mysteries. The uſe which Jupiter made of his addreſs and eloquence made him regarded as the meſſenger of the gods ; and his ſucceſs in ſeveral treaties of peace procured him the appellation of God of Peace. He contributed greatly to civilize the manners, and cultivate the minds of the people. He united them by commerce and good laws ; but the great defects which accompanied his extraordinary abilities involved him in a war with the other children of

Jupiter, in which he was vanquiſhed; and returning into Egypt ended his days there.

‘ This Mercury of the Greeks was generally regarded as the inventor of the fine arts.

‘ The Gauls honoured him under the name of Teutates, and offered to him human victims.’ P. 209.

He accounts, in the following manner, for the elevation of the moſt diſtinguiſhed princes and heroes to the rank of demi-gods.

‘ Amid the woes with which he found himſelf ſurrounded [in the ſtate of uncivilized ſociety], retaining all his pride, man carried his madneſs ſo far as to adore even his fellow-creatures, who became formidable by their bravery, or aſſiſted him in his neceſſities. The abuſe of power ſoon compelled all to unite againſt it; the flames of war were kindled, and to the diſeaſes, wants, and calamities with which nature daily threatened his frail exiſtence, man added this cruel ſcourge. In the firſt engagements, courage attracted every eye; the timid and weak did not then pretend to diſpute the firſt rank or its dangers with him who alone was capable of defending it; but when the victory was gained, cupidity, pride, and ambition, reſumed their empire.

‘ The triumphant and courageous would no longer be confounded with the vulgar; elevation gave offence; envy on one ſide, and ingratitude on the other, excited fury. The earth again was wet with human gore; and who can recount the blood it coſt to convince mankind, that other laws were wanting than their outrageous paſſions. It ſoon appeared that war would be eternal; and this moſt terrible of arts became a ſtudy. Every one perceived, that he muſt ſacrifice ſome portion of his pride to the more preſſing neceſſity of obtaining protection: rewards were aſſigned the conqueror, and the rank of each was determined by his ſtrength and courage. This gave riſe to emulation, which is inſeparable from glory; and Glory, who would always be juſt in the diſtribution of her favours, compelled Admiration and Gratitude to crown him who returned with the greateſt number of trophies, and ſhewed himſelf moſt capable of defending others.

‘ Such is the real origin of thoſe kings and heroes, whom the weakneſs and folly of man pretended afterwards to rank with the divinities.’ P. 292.

To the merit of originality this work has little claim: but it is not an unpleaſing or uſeleſs performance; and the tranſlation, conſidered as a firſt attempt, does credit to Mr. North.

Practical Astronomy; containing a Description of the Solar System; the Doctrine of the Sphere; the principal Problems in Astronomy. Illustrated with many Examples, Together with Astronomical Tables of the Sun, Moon, and primary Planets. By Alexander Ewing, Teacher of Mathematics, Edinburgh, 8vo. 6s. Boards. Longman. 1797.

IT is the aim of Mr. Ewing to introduce astronomy into schools; and, without doubt, much of it might be taught in those seminaries with advantage. But, for this purpose, the first principles of the science ought to be rendered familiar to ordinary capacities.

Our author informs us, that the work

‘ was undertaken with the design of assisting students who have no other previous qualification except’ [*than*] ‘ the knowledge of arithmetic, of the circles of the sphere, and the use of logarithms. With these qualifications (which may be attained in a short time), and the help of this book, any *person* may learn to solve the problems relating to the places and positions of the sun, moon, planets, and fixed stars, for any given time and place; either with the assistance of a teacher, or by *themselves*, as *they choose*.

‘ To accomplish the end proposed, tables of the sun, moon, and planets, have been calculated and collected, adapted to the Gregorian style, and extended farther than former tables; and the whole has been so abridged and condensed as to be comprehended in little room, that, being short and cheap, it might’ [*may*] ‘ be a proper school-book, and at the same time afford sufficient assistance for solving all the common problems in practical astronomy.’
r. vii.

Of the three previous qualifications here mentioned, arithmetic is the only one that can be procured in the majority of schools. Logarithms, a mode of calculating both easy and useful, are scarcely ever studied; and, if, in the advertisement of the academy, mention is made of the use of the globes, it is announced from mere motives of ostentation; for the boy, at the end of the time assigned for his education, returns home almost as ignorant of the nature of the sphere as he was when he first went to school. We are, therefore, not very sanguine in our expectations of the general success of this performance, as a school-book, though in some schools it may be read with considerable benefit.

As, on the one hand, it is not well calculated for an initiatory book, it is, on the other hand, too diffuse in various points; and the arrangement also is susceptible of improvement.

A specimen of Mr. Ewing’s mode of description follows;

* Mercury and Venus are called inferior planets, because they are nearer to the sun than any of the rest; and in their annual motions they appear to a spectator on the earth to traverse forward and backward small spaces on each side of the sun, and are frequently in conjunction with him, but never in opposition, nor even at 90 degrees distance; which is an ocular demonstration of the truth of the Copernican system.

* When Venus appears on the west of the sun, she rises before him in the morning, and is then called the morning star; and when she appears to the east of the sun, she sets after him in the evening, and is the evening star. She is in each of these positions about 290 days together: but is not visible to us all that time; for when near the sun on either side she is hid in his light.

* It may seem absurd to affirm that Venus remains on the west or east side of the sun longer than the whole time of her period round him; but while Venus moves through any part of her orbit, the earth moves the same way; and therefore her apparent motion, when direct, is only the difference between her own proper motion and that of the earth; and besides, she appears sometimes to be stationary, and at other times retrograde.' p. 6.

Many of the problems, we observe, are given with good directions; and the work, upon the whole, bears the marks of attention and diligence.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS.

Peace in our Power, upon Terms not unreasonable. By Charles Baring, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

THE expense, more perhaps than even the length of our contest with France, prepares the mind to receive with gladness the intimation that peace may be restored upon conditions not unreasonable. Our joy, however, is checked when we consider, that, even if the most upright, judicious, and patriotic of men, should preach any other doctrine than that of his majesty's minister, he would instantly be anathematized as an enemy to his country. The question is not now by what means we can obtain a *glorious* peace, but by what means we can procure the best possible peace in our circumstances. Our author, therefore, counter-acting all the prejudices which have been excited in favour of 'indemnity for the past,' proposes terms which amount to *sacrifices*, and which yet are not in themselves unreasonable. Attention is due to such a writer. He evidently is not the blind follower of a party: he writes from mature thinking and knowledge of the state of the na-

tion; and his long and honourable mercantile connections afford a presumption that he will offer nothing incompatible with the true dignity of Great Britain.

After some remarks on the relative situations of England and France, the substance of which is, that 'England can hardly defend, but at too great an expense, her vast trade, and that France, with little more than her own peace establishment, can oblige England to maintain a considerable war establishment,' he proposes, 1. That the title of king of France be discontinued by his majesty, without the formal sanction of a treaty; 2. That we should gratify Denmark, Sweden, Russia, and other powers, by engaging in future to treat neutral ships as neutral property, except in particular cases of contraband trade. The English have constantly claimed and exercised, in time of war, a right of seizing and condemning the property of their enemies, when found on board of neutral vessels. 'If England and France choose to be at war,' says Mr. Baring, 'I would ask any reasonable and moderate man, whether the Englishman or Frenchman can with greater propriety break into a Danish ship than into a Danish house? We should be ashamed to attempt by land what we boast of doing by sea. The French, indeed, have by land acted upon a similar principle; and we reproach them for their conduct; but can we do so with strict propriety, merely because the case of seizing enemies' property on land is not to be found in any work on the laws of nations?'—His third proposition is, That we should offer terms of peace to France, upon the principle of resigning, to her and her allies, all our conquests without reserve, but should refuse to allow any compensation for the ships destroyed at Toulon, or to make any other concession or sacrifice, however unimportant in its nature.

Having stated these propositions; and explained in what respect they would not be unreasonable or disadvantageous to us, Mr. Baring answers such objections as he conceives may be raised against them; and as these objections, in his apprehension, are not material, this point is accomplished with little difficulty. With regard to the two first propositions, we may affirm, that they would remove some obstacles to the approach as well as continuance of peace; and, as to the resignation of all our conquests, it is generally believed that lord Malmesbury, when at Lisle, had instructions to proceed to that extent, provided he could have obtained peace by it. It is, however, easy to adduce objections of which Mr. Baring has not taken notice; and, if we are determined to *die hard*, the changes may be rung upon the honour of the nation and indemnity for the past, until we are reduced to our last guinea: but we are convinced, that, if the sentiments of the nation could be collected upon this plan, it would have the suffrages of nine-tenths of the whole body.

Plain Facts: in Five Letters to a Friend, on the present State of Politics. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Jordan, 1798.

Among the professed subjects of this pamphlet, we find 'the

present extraordinary profusion of public money—the national debt—balance of trade—sinécures—places—pensions—state of the representation—addresses—the present war—alarm—state-trials—negotiations for peace—confidence in ministers—exertions made in the cause of liberty—innovation—origin and intent of government—discretionary power in representatives—universal representation—taxation—borough-holders—education—state-lotteries—criminal code—capital punishments—charitable institutions—game laws—liberty of speech—army—barracks—power of the crown—aristocracy—&c.’ So many topics cannot be very profoundly examined in a mere pamphlet. Most of the articles, indeed, are very slightly mentioned, and we have no regular or complete discussion of any of them. The author’s chief object is to censure the conduct of the present ministers; but the arguments adduced by him are such as have frequently been urged by intelligent writers. If they are repeated, it ought to be with a force and dignity which might challenge attention.

A Chapter to the English Multitude. By one of the People. 8vo. 1s. Symonds. 1798.

This author directs his powers against *equality*, and proves that there is no such thing in nature as equality to be found in the heavenly bodies, or in the bodies, tempers or dispositions, wisdom or folly, of men. ‘Equality, in short, is a phantom of the brain,’ and principally, in our opinion, in the brain of this author; for who ever answered the following questions, which he puts with an air of triumph, in any other way than he would? ‘Is there no difference between a sour crab, and the delicious flavour of a pineapple? Yet they are both called, in common language, apples. Are not herbs, plants, bushes, and trees, some higher than others? Do they not all differ in what they produce? Is there not a much greater quantity of common and ordinary fruits than of those which have the most exquisite flavour? &c.’ Such of our readers as wish to have very convincing proof of points concerning which no rational creature ever entertained a doubt, will be highly pleased with the greater part of this pamphlet, and will find their patriotism invigorated by the consideration, that nature was such an enemy to equality as to give us more apples than peaches!

A Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, &c. &c. &c. shewing the Necessity and Facility of continuing the War; with a few seasonable Hints to Mr. Fox, and his Friends: by a Clergyman of the Church of England. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1797.

The worthy minister of the church, who addresses this epistle to the first minister of state, offers advice which is palpably unnecessary, as Mr. Pitt needs no *stimulus* to urge him to a continuance of the war. It is not requisite that a clergyman should so far de-

part from the decorum of his station, as to encourage the effervescence of inordinate passions, and give his sanction to the virulence of national animosity. He 'judged it,' however, 'not unbecoming a person of his station and privacy to attempt to rectify the public opinion, which they' [*the leaders of opposition*] 'industriously endeavour to pervert.' But he should first have proved, that they have in any degree *perverted* the opinion of the public. The *perversion*, in fact, has arisen from another quarter; and it has been attended with a success which we shall long have reason to deplore.

The writer deprecates any pacification except such as Mr. Pitt may conclude; and he is so far from wishing to accelerate the return of peace, that he would prefer a naval war to that desirable event, on pretence of the insecurity of Great-Britain while France retains the power of annoyance.

'In case of peace we must reduce our naval and military establishments, else where are its advantages? We must dismantle our navy, dismiss our brave seamen, elated with victory and rewarded with spoil. The high and martial spirit of the nation now existing in its full vigour, vigilant, and fired with indignation at the daring and insulting foe, must be disappointed of its object (the security of these kingdoms) and suffered to dwindle into a languid and fatal security. We must sit grumbling over the expences of a war, no one object of which shall we have effectually obtained. In the mean time the factious here would gather strength and be assisted by the power of France, now irresistible by reason of her conquests on the continent. Her greatness and success would be very improperly attributed to the excellence of her government. And such an opinion prevailing there and co-operating with a similar persuasion among certain persons here, would be a dreadful instrument in the enemy's hand. It would possess the power which Archimedes ascribed to his imaginary lever. It would shake the world from that central course which the God of Nature and of order hath ordained, into the incalculable eccentricity of one of those comets which appears but once in six or seven hundred years. We should, together with all Europe, be irresistibly drawn into the vortex of revolutionary confusion, and universal anarchy.'

P. 21.

The advantages of a naval war he thus states, in a tone of confident assertion.

'How much better is it then to keep our force together, to preserve it entire, and to persevere in a naval war, till the directory sue to us for peace, and beg it as a boon. France must do so in time; and, in the mean while, we have nothing to fear, and every thing to hope for, nothing to lose, and every thing to gain from the vigorous prosecution of a naval war. We are strengthening our navy and crippling theirs; we are taking their ships much

faster than they can build them : we are annihilating their commerce, and increasing our own. France can never become a rich commercial nation without shipping, and she never can have a ship at sea whilst at war with Great Britain. The expence of such a war will not be very great, comparatively speaking, and its advantages innumerable.' p. 25.

The 'seasonable hints' mentioned in the title-page consist of cautions to Mr. Fox, the duke of Bedford, and other adversaries of the ministry, against a prosecution of schemes which may terminate in their ruin; and the author does not scruple to represent the 'lord of Woburn' as following the example of the infamous duke of Orleans. Such is the candour of this reverend writer!

A Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, &c. By a Country Clergyman. 8vo. 1s. J. Bell. 1798.

This pamphleteer affects humour and pleasantry; and, from his mode of writing, it is not indisputably clear whether his advice was seriously or jocularly intended. We are inclined to think that a vein of irony pervades the piece; but it may be alleged, on the other hand, that the motto ('Our letter shews to you much more than jest'), and some strong passages, favour the idea of a real intention of abetting the cause of the ministry.

The clergyman opens his 'little budget' for the good of his country; and, having mentioned the expediency of taxing silk stockings, and other articles of fashionable dress and ornament, he adds,

'Masters of club or of assembly rooms under whatever denomination, proprietors of billiard tables in town or country, exhibitors of wax-work, and furcapt jackalls of Exeter-Change or any less central repository, sturdy varlets, who should be shouldering a musket, or wheeling upon a charger, ought to pay pretty highly for cajoling the curiosity of mankind, and fattening upon the credulity of bumpkins, who stand and stare at any whimsical figure in the streets, though such countenances in general are but a treacherous security for their owners honesty:—all these might be severally taxed; and as some of the above-mentioned worthies pass a sort of Scythian life, the collectors should be pretty frequent in their visits, and positive in their demands, lest the return which they make be a "non est inventus." These I would class among minor taxes; to which family might be referred the glass-work of hot-houses, green-houses, bell and hand glasses, cucumber frames, and envelopes of prints; all ornamental and cut glass; all carpets and tapestry of foreign manufacture; the coxcomical apparatus of high-glazed, wire-woven, and hot-pressed paper; musical instruments, lessons, songs, oratorios, and all vocal or instrumental compositions; together with statues, busts, tablets, clocks, and chimney-pieces of marble.' p. 28.

He then bestows some varnish on the public character of Mr. Pitt, and quaintly concludes,

‘ Farewell, young man! May the God of our fathers be with thee, and give thee favour in the fight of thy king!’ p. 38.

The Consequences of a French Invasion considered as Motives to Union and Exertion: in an Address to the Parishioners of Woolwich, on occasion of their Meeting to form an Armed Association. By G. A. Thomas, A. M. &c. 12mo. 4d. Rivingtons. 1798.

The first sentence of this address is not altogether well-founded.

‘ Whilst we cannot but lament the continuance of a contest so truly calamitous, as to reduce us to the present awful crisis, we derive no small consolation from reflecting, that we have neither been the aggressors in the war, nor have omitted any proper means to bring it to a conclusion.’ p. 3.

In its progress, the writer, though his aim is good, indulges in idle declamation; and the last sentence is a curious specimen of inaccurate composition.

‘ If, armed with the panoply of justice, in defending our country from this long threatened scheme of invasion, we bring forth our patriotic and parochial auxiliaries with union, dexterity, energy, and dispatch, we may bid such a defiance to our enemies, as will deter them from the desperate project of invading a free, united, loyal, and spirited people, or overwhelm them with irretrievable confusion and defeat.’ p. 26.

It is a species of anti-climax to sink from *patriotic* to *parochial*, particularly after the pompous expressions, ‘ armed with the panoply of justice:’ it is improper to speak of *invading a people*, instead of *a kingdom or a country*; and the epithet *irretrievable* is erroneously used; for it is only applicable to what we cannot regain or retrieve (*retrouver*), not to that from which we are desirous of rescuing ourselves.

Our Good Old Castle on the Rock: or Union the one Thing needful. Addressed to the People of England. 12mo. 3d. Wright. 1798.

This short address is divided into four sections. The heads are, ‘ the common cause’—‘ our good old castle on the rock’—‘ the castle in danger’—‘ the castle preserved.’ The common cause is represented as ‘ the cause of all nations;’ but the castle refers to Great-Britain alone; and the rescue of it from danger, it is affirmed, can only be expected from union. The pamphlet is seasonable, and may be useful.

An Address to the British Forces by Sea and Land, armed to resist the threatened French Invasion. 8vo. 2d. Bush, at Yarmouth. 1798.

We cannot say that this pamphlet is well written; but its object

will atone for a deficiency in that respect. It terminates with a patriotic song.

L A W.

The Trial of James O'Coigly (otherwise called James Quigley, otherwise called James John Fivey), Arthur O'Connor, Esq. John Binns, John Allen, and Jeremiah Leary, for High Treason, under a special Commission, at Maidstone, in Kent, on the 21st and 22d Days of May, 1798. Taken in Short-Hand, by Joseph Gurney. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Gurney. 1798.

The importance of these trials merited a copious account; but some parts of this volume might have been spared; and the examinations of the witnesses might have been given with equal effect in a smaller compass. The report, however, upon the whole, appears to be accurate.

The Trial at large of Arthur O'Connor, Esq. John Binns, John Allen, Jeremiah Leary, and James Coigley, for High Treason, before Judge Buller, &c. under a special Commission, at Maidstone, in the County of Kent. Containing Memoirs of the Life of Arthur O'Connor, Esq. &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway. 1798.

This account is much less comprehensive than that which Mr. Gurney has published; and we have reason to think that the statement is less correct. The memoirs prefixed are very short and imperfect.

AGRICULTURE.

A Practical Treatise on Peat Moss, considered as in its natural State fitted for affording Fuel, or as susceptible of being converted into Mold, with full Directions for converting it, and cultivating it as a Soil. By James Anderson, L. L. D. F. R. S. &c. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Chapman.

Dr. Anderson has collected, with great labour, a variety of facts respecting peat-moss. This remarkable substance covers, in the north of England and in Scotland, vast tracts of land, and seems to have surmounted or overturned trees of considerable magnitude. It is a solid, uniform, compact body, absorbing water, like clay, and, like this earth, obstinately resisting its passage. When cut, it is granulated and mucous, and sometimes scaly, like the hop, when compressed for sale. Its colour is a mixture of red and brown; but, when exposed to the air, it is of a darker hue. In this moss, when *quick*, no animal resides. The wood, at its bottom, is in part decayed, but is more inflammable than in its recent state. Oak suffers more than fir; and the changes in the latter are singular: the lateral fibres only are destroyed, the longitudinal ones admitting an easy separation, and, when minutely divided, being

flexible and tough. These fibres are used as candles, and the flexible ones as ropes, which, when worn, will ultimately be useful as torches. Peat-moss, when dried, burns with a clear, bright flame, leaving ashes white and light as the finest down; its charcoal is hard, burns with a vivid flame, and is wholly consumed. It is sometimes found at the bottom of the sea; and, in the island of South-Uist, it lies on a bed of granite. On the surface of quick moss, no vegetable grows; though sometimes, when it is overcharged with water, aquatic plants will flourish in the water.

The theories which have been formed to account for this production, are discussed at some length; and our author suggests, in his Postscript, the probability of its being a vegetable substance. Indeed, little doubt can remain of its being a vegetable; and we always considered it as such.

Dr. Anderson's directions for reclaiming mosses are very judicious. They chiefly consist in draining and compressing. The first is the common practice, which he directs with more skill and judgment than we have observed in any other work. The great improvement consists in pressure; and we could wish that this might be tried on a large scale, as, at present, it rests on little more than probability.

The Orchardist: or, a System of Close Pruning and Medication, for establishing the Science of Orcharding, as patronized by the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. By Tho. Skip Dyot Bucknall, Esq. Extracted from the XIth, XIIth, XIIIth, and XIVth Vols. of the Society's Transactions, with Additions. 8vo. 3s. Nicol. 1797.

The management of an orchard is a business of some importance; and the advice here given may improve that department. But, to avoid repetition, we forbear to mention Mr. Bucknall's directions, as those which are most material have been already noticed in our accounts of different volumes of the Transactions of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce*.

An Introduction to the Knowledge and Practice of Gardening, by Charles Marshall, &c. 12mo. 5s. Bound. Rivingtons.

It is proper that those who attend to gardening should be acquainted with the principles, as well as with the modes of practice which are generally employed. The work before us will teach the latter with some correctness; but the former are by no means laid down in so clear and accurate a manner as is necessary.

The poetical and other extracts which constitute the section on the 'Praise of Gardening,' might have been totally omitted without any disadvantage; and room would thus have been afforded for other articles that are not noticed in any part of the work.

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. IX. p. 445; Vol. XIII. p. 173; and Vol. XIX. p. 414.

On the formation of a garden, and on the proper methods of cultivating it, the writer has given some judicious hints and directions. His remarks on the quantity of seed, and manner of sowing, are those which follow.

‘ The quantity of seed sown, is a thing to be attended to with some exactness. Small seeds go a great way, and require a careful hand to distribute them ; for though sowing a little too much be a trifle as to the value of seeds, yet to have them come up crowding thick is an evil. To sow evenly as to quantity, is an object of practice worthy of care, as it secures a better crop, and more easily managed in the thinning. On the whole, however, it is better to sow rather thick than thin, especially if the seed is suspected ; and poor land will require more seed than rich.

It is not generally advisable to sow several sorts of seed on the same spot, as some persons are accustomed to do. The gardeners about London follow the practice ; but profit is their object, and not neatness or propriety. On the same piece, they sow radishes, lettuces, and carrots : the radishes are drawn young for the table, the lettuces to plant out, and a sufficient crop of carrots is left, for carrots should not be very near to grow big ; this is as reasonable a combination as any that is made ; but still, if not short of ground, each kind separate would be best. In defence of this mode of culture, it is said, if one crop fails, the others may do, and there is no loss of ground or time ; and if they all succeed, they do very well. Radishes and spinach are commonly sown together by the common gardeners, and many manœuvres of inter-cropping are made by them as sowing, or planting between rows of vegetables that are wide asunder, or presently to come off, or in the alleys of things cultivated on beds. But this crowding mode of gardening will not be imitated by private families, except there is a want of ground to bring in a proper succession of crops.

‘ Some little things of this sort, however, may be done ; as, suppose a piece for horse-radish be new planted, it may be top-cropped with radishes or spinach, &c. or if a piece of potatoes be planted wide, a bean may be put in between each set, in every, or every other row ; a thin crop of onions upon new asparagus beds is a common practice, drawing them young from about the plants. But these are still permissions, and are intended only as hints.’
P. 82.

Under the heads ‘ Nursery, Grafting, Planting, Shrubberies, Pruning, and Hot-Beds,’ the reader will find useful information, though the author sometimes depends too much upon the effects of the *saline* and *nitrous* properties of the earth. But, as he appears to be little acquainted with chemistry, we do not wonder at such mistakes.

The art of raising cucumbers in winter by a particular construction of frame, is curious ; but we must refer to the work for the account of it.

Though we do not think that Mr. Marshall has ably explained the principles of horticulture, his observations on the modes of cultivating different articles deserve the attention of the inexperienced gardener.

M E D I C I N E.

An Inquiry into the Nature and Cause of Fever, more especially the Intermittent: containing an Investigation into the Nature of Miasma, and the Manner of its Action upon the Human Body. 8vo. 2s. Mudie and Son, Edinburgh.

The hypothesis of intermittent fever which is here offered to the public, is accompanied with a curious intimation. The discovery, it is said, may be important, and yet the discoverer may be entitled to little praise. The author adds, that he has suffered much from having made a *discovery* which was in itself so obvious. Easy as the task was, however, we are not *here* to expect a full communication of the particulars; we are only *now* to be presented with a general outline, which is *hereafter* to be filled up.

In short, the discovery is this. The writer entertains an idea that the breathing of impure air induces an accumulation of blood about the heart and lungs, and that this is the exciting or the more immediate cause of all the symptoms of the cold fit. Then (continues the author), from the irritation of that very important part of the vascular system, the blood is violently driven off again into circulation; and this (he says) we call the more immediate cause of all the symptoms of the hot fit. After so *luminous* an explanation of two of the stages of the intermittent fever, that of the third, it may be expected, will be equally clear. Here it is—The increased action of the arteries forces the blood towards the surface of the body, and its finer parts through the exhaling vessels of the skin.

This is the substance of our author's doctrine of intermittent fever: but we cannot perceive it to be better founded or more entitled to the attention of the practitioner, than many others that have had their day; nor do we more admire the numerous 'little doctrines in physiology,' by which the writer has endeavoured to illustrate his subject. The efforts of a vigorous or comprehensive mind do not appear in the Inquiry.

Observations on apparent Death from Drowning, Suffocation, &c. with an Account of the Means to be employed for Recovery. Drawn up at the Desire of the Northamptonshire Preservative Society: by James Curry, M. D. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

Few institutions are more beneficial than those which have inculcated proper plans for the restoration of life, when apparently destroyed. These remarks were produced at the request of a society of this kind, and for the following reasons. From the minutes of the society it became obvious,

‘ That favourable opportunities of recovery had been sometimes lost, owing to want of information in the persons present, with regard to the means that ought to be employed; while the distance from medical aid was so great, as to render every exertion unsuccessful by the time that such assistance could be procured. But although medical men are, from the nature of their studies and profession, particularly qualified for being useful on such occasions, it by no means follows that they are exclusively so; on the contrary, repeated experience has shewn, that intelligent persons, of every description, may readily acquire sufficient information upon the subject, to render them the happy instruments of recovery. It is chiefly with a view to the instruction of such persons, that these observations have been drawn up, and this circumstance must apologize, if any apology be necessary, for the studied rejection of medical words and phrases, and the preference given to such terms as are familiar to the generality of readers.’ P. vi.

However laudable this design may be, we cannot find that Dr Curry has made any important additions to the advice given by former writers; and the theoretical part of the pamphlet would have been more satisfactory if he had been fully acquainted with the doctrine of airs, as delivered by M. Lavoisier. The general conclusion, however, which is drawn from the reasoning, appears to be just. It is this—

‘ That in every case of apparent death, the instituting an artificial breathing, by assiduously inflating the lungs with fresh air, is one of the first and most necessary measures to be taken for recovery.’ P. 38.

The treatment most suitable to each case of suspended respiration, is not inaccurately described; and the Appendix well explains the nature of the means which ought to be pursued when poisonous substances have been taken.

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

An Account of some remarkable Discoveries in the Production of Artificial Cold, with Experiments on the Congelation of Quicksilver in England, &c. &c. By Richard Walker. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Rivingtons.

These papers, having appeared in the Philosophical Transactions, have been fully considered in our progressive volumes; and we do not find any remarkable addition, besides the introduction and recapitulation.

The introduction contains a vague account of some former experiments connected with Mr. Walker’s subject. The great philosophical problem is not properly noticed—we mean the singularity, that bodies, which, like the mineral acids, contain so much absolute heat, should, in liquefying ice, so greedily attract heat from surrounding bodies. The view taken of it is merely the change of

capacity for heat, in the altered form of the ice, when it becomes fluid: but, if this were the whole of the problem, the attraction for heat should be the same, with whatever fluid the ice is thawed. The excess of cold produced by dissolving Glauber's salts in mineral acids, above what arises from their solution in water, might, we think, have suggested a more extensive view.

The discovery of the means of producing cold, without the assistance of ice, is undoubtedly valuable; yet, when the great care and the numerous requisite precautions are considered, we fear that it will not be found easily practicable in a hot climate. Mr. Walker, indeed, seems to estimate its importance, and his own merit, at too high a rate.

Keeping some of Mr. Walker's experiments in our view, we may remark, that, in our thermometer, salt and snow, just in a melting state, sink the mercury *exactly* to zero; and ice, just melting, *exactly* to 32°; and some of the superior parts of the scale we have tried, by adding water of different heats to melting ice, so as to answer to the degrees which the best philosophers have found in their instruments. We therefore suspect that our author's trials with salt and snow were not accurately made. On another occasion, he does not recollect an experiment of M. de la Place, who put, at the bottom of a vessel filled with pounded ice, a red-hot cube of iron, which, of course, melted the nearest ice; but the liquefaction extended a very little way, and the pounded ice, above and through the whole of the upper part of the vessel, was compacted by the frozen vapour.

The Philosophy of Chemistry, or fundamental Truths of modern Chemical Science, arranged in a new Order; by A. F. Fourcroy. Translated from the French of the Second Edition; signed by the Author. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Johnson.

We are pleased to see chemistry assume so correct and so philosophical a form; philosophical, not from a theory pervading the several facts, but from an accurate comprehensive view of the facts themselves. If it had been attempted on the former plan, the destruction of the theory would have been fatal to the whole. At present, should the conversion of water into its supposed component parts be disproved, it will do little more than change the language: the different analyses would still remain. We do not, however, suppose that the destruction of this important part of the system is approaching. The late attempts have only shown it to be still more securely founded, than it was supposed to be; and it may always continue at least a part—probably a focus from which a variety of new discoveries may emanate—of our chemical system.

We strongly recommend the present work to the English authors, who appear often at our bar, shamefully ignorant of the present state of chemistry. It would also be an useful exercise to connect the 'application of the results' with the subject of the chapter. We shall not analyse this work, as it contains only known facts, unit-

ed in a systematic view. We shall merely extract a curious passage relating to the conversion of vegetable into animal matter.

‘ Accordingly, the conversion of vegetable into animal matter, which consists only in the fixation or addition of azot, must be considered as the principal phenomenon of animalization : this alone explains it’s chief mysteries ; and when once we are perfectly acquainted with the mechanism of this addition of azot, most of the functions of the animal economy, which effect it, or depend on it, will become equally known.

‘ What we already know of the subject is confined to the following considerations. The phenomenon is not so much owing to the fixation of a new quantity of azot, as to the subtraction of other principles, which increase it’s proportion. In respiration the blood exhales a large hydrogen, and of carbon, either simply dissolved in hydrogen gas, or converted into the state of carbonic acid by the very act of circulation, and in the vascular system, according to some modern philosophers. In the cavities of the bronchia, during the act of respiration, and by the instrumentality of this act, the hydrogen forms water, which exhales in expiration. A portion of oxygen appears at the same time to become fixed in the pulmonary blood, and, circulating with this fluid through the vessels, gradually combines with the carbon, so as to form that carbonic acid, which is extricated from the venous blood in the lungs. It is easy to conceive, that, by thus disengaging a large quantity of hydrogen and carbon, respiration must necessarily augment the proportion of azot. The study of the mechanism of the other functions, which remains to be pursued, will undoubtedly lead to new discoveries, still more important than the preceding : what has been performed within a few years naturally prompts us to imagine, that still more will be done. The analogy of action which has been discovered between digestion, respiration, circulation, and insensible perspiration, has begun to establish on new views, more solid than were heretofore possessed, a system of animal physics, which promises an abundant harvest of discoveries and improvements. Unquestionably it will be in pursuing the phenomena of digestion and growth in young animals, that an edifice equally novel and solid will be erected on these foundations. Every thing is ready for this grand work ; several philosophers pursue this unbeaten path of experience ; fresh ardour, springing from these new conceptions, animates those who are engaged in this branch of physics ; and the track they have just begun to explore appears such as must lead them to more precise and accurate results, than any that have hitherto been advanced on the functions which constitute animal life.’

P. 175.

This essay is included in Mr. Heron’s translation of Fourcroy’s Elements * ; but we preferred a review of it in this separate and more elegant form.

* See p. 103.

RELIGION.

The Integrity and Excellence of Scripture. A Vindication of the much-controverted Passages, Deut. vii. 2. 5. and—xx. 16. 17. whereby the Justness of the Commands they enjoin are incontrovertibly proved, and, consequently, the Objections of Thomas Paine and Dr. Geddes compleatly refuted. By George Benjoin. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1797.

The command of God to the Israelites to extirpate the seven nations of Canaan, has been the subject of much declamation among unbelievers; and the Supreme Being has been accused of unnecessary cruelty. It is the object of this publication to vindicate the Creator, and to correct the mistaken notions of many Christians. The substance of the explanatory part we shall give in the author's words.

'The original he literally translates; and proves, that the words, Deut. vii. 2. commonly translated—Thou shalt "utterly destroy them," literally mean—thou shalt *dispel* (expulse, disperse) *them*.—that the words translated—"nor shew mercy unto them," literally mean—*nor shew them any FAVOUR*.—That the words, Deut. xx. 16. translated "Thou shalt save alive nothing that breatheth," literally mean—*Thou shalt not SUPPORT any thing living*. That the expression in Deut. xx. 17.—"Thou shalt utterly destroy them," means, *Thou shalt DISPEL them ALL.*' P. 77.

The verb וְנִסְּתָם does not mean literally *to dispel*; though, in these passages, *to expel* would convey the meaning better than *to destroy*. The real import of the word is to *separate*, to *devote*; and, in this case, the Canaanites were to be so separated, that no social intercourse should subsist between them and the Israelites. Consequently, if the former resolved to continue in the country, they subjected themselves to all the horrors of war. The country, they knew, was promised to Abraham's descendants, who were coming to take possession of it.

They resolved, however, to resist the latter; and their pertinacity, in the opinion of Mr. Benjoin, merited the severest punishment.

This writer treats Dr. Geddes with illiberality, in coupling him with Thomas Paine; an insult scarcely pardonable in the republic of letters. One is an unbeliever; the other is not only a believer, but has taken great pains to interpret the scriptures.

A Sermon preached at the Parish Church of St. Michael, Queenhithe, London, on Wednesday, March 7, 1798; being the Day appointed for a General Fast; and at Layton, Essex, the Sunday following. By the Rev. John Wight Wickes, M. A. &c. Published by Request. 4to. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1798.

'The consideration of God's former kindness to us should teach

us fidelity to our country, and loyalty to our king—to despise the schemes of innovators, and pray for the preservation and welfare of our constitution.

‘The misery consequent upon innovation has generally exceeded all that the boldest projector at first designed, or could have anticipated; riot, confusion, and bloodshed ensue—property becomes the sport of faction—safety nowhere to be found—neither youth, nor age, nor sex, is free from the horrid barbarities of assailants—Atheism erects her standard—and every thing sacred and divine is distorted, prophaned, and blasphemed.’ P. 12.

This was the language of Pagans against Christianity. Innovation is good or evil according to previous circumstances. It is good when it tends to introduce truth in the room of falsehood; it is evil when it aims at the substitution of falsehood for truth.

‘Is it not more prudent, will it not be more wise, to be patient under a known and temporary hardship, rather than foolishly draw upon ourselves the horrors of an invasion, by secret conspiracies, disloyalty to the best of monarchs, and injudicious ill-founded complaints against the ruling powers?’ P. 14.

Loyalty is as much a point of duty as of wisdom or prudence. Our sovereign is rather a king than a monarch. The worst of tyrants have, during life, been styled the best of monarchs, and the best of monarchs have been coldly received by their subjects. The two sisters who could scarcely find terms sufficiently expressive of their love to the monarch, were traitors to him: the third spoke the language of simplicity and truth;

“I love your majesty

“According to my bond; nor more nor less.”

Her love was proved by deeds, not by words. Flattery, or even the appearance of flattery, ought not to show itself in the pulpit.

A Sermon preached at the Abbey Church of St. Peter, Westminster, before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, on Wednesday, March 7th, 1798, being the Day appointed for a General Fast. By Folliott, Lord Bishop of Bristol. 4to. 2s. Faulder. 1798.

This discourse contains trite remarks on the benefits of religion and the dangerous consequences of infidelity. At the close of it the preacher seems to be inflamed; and his language more resembles that of a general at the head of his troops, than that of a Christian pastor in the midst of his flock. He forgets that the ‘whole armour of God’ is described by St. Paul as proper only for warfare against spiritual enemies.

La Voix du Patriotisme dans la Circonstance présente; par F. Prévost, Ministre Anglican, &c.

The Voice of Patriotism at the present Crisis. Small 8vo. 1s. 6d. De Boffe. 1798.

This is a sermon which has been preached both to a French and a Swiss congregation in our metropolis. The preacher is a native of Switzerland; and the late misfortunes of his countrymen are not unmentioned in his discourse. The text involves a prophecy of Isaiah, relative to the restoration of the prosperity of Jerusalem; and it is considered as applicable to the present times, and particularly to the British nation.

‘Our Jerusalem (says M. Prévost) is indeed under some affliction; but she is not destitute of consolation or resource. A happy change may reasonably be expected for her. We behold her numerous and invincible fleets riding in triumph upon all seas, and striking terror into the enemies of her glory. We behold her brave and loyal troops defending her walls and protecting her shores. We view her sovereign and his ministers watching as guardian angels over her safety—a king who unites wisdom with piety, and tempers courage with humanity and virtue—able and intrepid ministers, who, in a stormy season, conduct with skill and prudence the agitated vessel of the state. We observe her children assembled around her, contributing their stores to her relief, and prepared to sacrifice their lives in her service. With confidence, therefore, the animating words of the prophet may be addressed to her. ‘Arise, O Jerusalem!’ do not give way to inquietude and alarm; but let thy courage revive. ‘Arise, Jerusalem, and shine! for thy light approaches, and the glory of Jehovah rises upon thee.’ P. 4.

Though we are disgusted at the flattery which a part of this translated quotation exhibits, we wish, as eagerly as the Helvetic preacher, for the accomplishment of the prophecy in his mode of application.

There are some pleasing *traits* of eloquence in this sermon; and it is well adapted to existing circumstances.

A View of the Nature and Design of Public Fasts; occasioned by Peter Pindar's Satire on Fasts; in a Sermon, delivered at Ash, the Seventh of March, 1798, with Additions. By N. Nisbett, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1798.

The effusions of a satirical poet against modern fasts have given rise to some judicious remarks in support of them; but the poet and the preacher are equally removed from the true point of view in which they ought to be considered. It is unnecessary to say any thing of the satirist. If the object of the fast be merely to call down the destruction of heaven on our fellow-creatures, it can be vindicated only by those men whose religion and patriotism are ground-

ed equally on the most degrading self-interest. But it is requisite that the preacher should justify the use of fasts on the principles of that religion which it is his duty to teach. We observe, however, that his scriptural quotations are all taken from the Old Testament. Was it because he found the words of Christ and the apostles unsuitable to his purpose? We wish him to re-consider his subject; and we have no doubt that, if fasts are to be justified on Christian principles, he will be able to inculcate, from the four gospels, some sentiments which may deserve the particular attention of Christians.

Though we do not agree with Mr. Nisbett in the general scope of his argument, we were pleased with some of his observations.

‘ To make men sensible of their own imbecility, and of the impropriety of this self-confidence, they are taught by experience that the race is not always to the swift, nor the battle to the strong, and that there is an invisible and controlling power which sometimes directs events, contrary to all human probabilities. There has been, it is to be feared, but too much of this vain confidence, even among ourselves. It is within the memory of many, that in the American war, when intoxicated with an imagination of the greatness of our strength, we talked of absolute, unconditional submission to our power, and that with a handful of men we could reduce them to it; and, perhaps, there has been but too great a propensity to boasting in the present unhappy contest. In the former case, the event is known, and may not God have permitted the present triumph of our adversaries, to humble our pride, and to bring us to a due sense of our dependence upon him?’ P. 12.

In another place he says—

‘ If our prayers were pious imprecations for the destruction of our enemies, I have no hesitation in asserting, that both religion and humanity would forbid the practice.’ P. 14.

This sentiment is afterwards more strongly enforced.

‘ If a single sentiment, encouraging the exercise of the malevolent passions, runs through our public devotions, on those occasions (which, by the way, I do not believe), it hath no sanction from the author of our religion; and, like the dead fly in the apothecaries’ ointment, will spoil the whole composition.’ P. 15.

Public Worship a Social Duty; a Sermon, preached on the Occasion of the Author's Collation to a Prebend in the Cathedral Church of Lichfield, on Sunday, August 6, 1797, and designed as a friendly Exhortation to the higher Ranks of Society in Great Britain. By G. A. Thomas, M. A. &c. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1797.

‘ Happily for this nation, it's pious governor, with his royal consort, though encumbered with the cares of state, and encircled with the splendors of a court, are truly the nursing father and nursing mother of our pure reformed church, and may, each, in the language

of the monarch of Israel, exclaim, ' Lord, I have loved the habitation of thy house, and the place where thine honour dwelleth !'

P. 34.

This praise in the present times may be contrasted with an account of some years in the last century.

' We cannot forget the period, so memorable in the history of this country, when the impious hand of a daring usurper had wrested the sceptre from the hands of his lawful sovereign; had proscribed every decent exterior of religion, and, with sacrilegious violence, had plundered and defaced every monument of piety;—when even this venerable fabric, in which we are now assembled, escaped not the desolating rage of fanatic rancor;—it was then that the constancy of Christian faith shone conspicuous amidst the wreck of our holy establishment.' P. 28.

The preacher unfortunately forgets that very few men more punctually observed the exteriors of religion than that usurper. From these extracts the reader may perceive that the arguments for social worship are not wholly collected from the scripture, and that applications are made to present times and political opinions, inconsistent with the true spirit of the discourse. Indeed the sermon begins inauspiciously.

' It is a maxim founded in truth, and confirmed by experience, that religion is the firmest basis of civil government.' P. 5.

So thought the ancient Romans; and it formed the strongest argument in the senate for retaining idolatry, and resisting the introduction of Christianity. But surely very little attention is necessary to shew the fallacy of this pretended maxim. Religion, whether good or bad, is the firmest basis, says our preacher; but he should recollect that the most stable government in the world, that of China, has existed independently of a religious establishment. The duty of public worship is to be founded on scriptural principles; and the commotions in France, and domestic factions, have no concern with the question.

M A T H E M A T I C S.

Elements of Geometry; containing the First Six Books of Euclid, with Two Books on the Geometry of Solids. To which are added, Elements of Plane and Spherical Trigonometry. By John Playfair, F. R. S. Edin. &c. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Robinsons.

The chief difference between this publication and Simson's edition of Euclid, is in the fifth book, in which the scientific editor prefers the algebraical to the geometrical mode of demonstration. The doctrine of proportion, as laid down by Euclid, remains; and due credit is given to his theory, which, from the

apparent difficulty of comprehending his demonstrations, many students have been permitted by their teachers to neglect. We are diffident of our own judgment, when it varies from that of so excellent a geometrician as Dr. Playfair; and we are sensible of the ease with which the nature of proportion may be explained in algebraical terms: but, whether it be prejudice in favour of the old school, or a sentiment founded in reason from considering Euclid's Elements as a geometrical work, and as one that requires geometrical demonstrations, we felt some degree of uneasiness at seeing the fifth book despoiled of its figures. We should, therefore, have recommended the retention of Euclid's demonstrations and figures, to which the present algebraical demonstrations might have been, with great propriety, subjoined, as they would not only by themselves instruct the student in the doctrine of proportion, but would enable him to overcome every difficulty which the original demonstrations are supposed to involve.

The first and third definitions of the first book are altered. They are stumbling-blocks to learners; and we do not see any great improvement in the alteration. Def. 1. 'A point is that which has position but not magnitude.' Def. 3. 'Lines which cannot coincide in two points without coinciding altogether are called straight lines.' We must refer the learner to the sight or touch; and then it will not be difficult to explain to him the meaning of point and line.

The data are omitted in this edition; and we read with pleasure the editor's reasons, particularly that he reserves for them a place in his Geometrical Analysis, which he has long meditated, and which will be, without doubt, a treasure to the mathematical world.

In the notes we find some judicious remarks; and the work, though in our opinion capable of improvement, will be found very useful to all who are entering upon a course of mathematical studies.

An Appendix to the Principles of Algebra, by Francis Maseres, Esq. F. R. S. Curfitor Baron of his Majesty's Court of Exchequer. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.

This is an appendix to Mr. Frend's Principles of Algebra; and it is larger than the work itself. The baron and Mr. Frend agree in exploding the doctrine of negative quantities from their system; and they assert that it is useless and absurd to consider a number as less than nothing. With them the sign *minus* always means that you must subtract the number before which it stands from some other number; and consequently, if no other number, or a less number, be connected with it, they desist from their operations, and consider the reasoning adopted by some eminent mathematicians on these negative terms as so many paralogisms.

The two rules commonly attributed to Cardan, are properly restored by the baron to the true inventors; namely, to Scipio Fer-

reus for the case $x^3 + bx = c$, and to Nicholas Tartaglia for the case $x^3 - bx = c$. They are investigated in this work both analytically and synthetically.

Not only equations of the third order, but also those of the fourth, are examined; and, after a complete investigation of the method adopted by Luigi Ferrari for the solution of certain forms in the fourth order, the baron makes a comparison between the processes necessary according to this method and Raphson's mode of approximation, concluding with a decisive preference (in which we agree with this acute reasoner) of the latter mode.

At the close of the volume are remarks on an error in Clairaut's reasoning with regard to negative quantities. That algebraist affirms, that $a - b$ multiplied into $c - d$, will produce $ac - bc - ad + bd$, which is indeed admitted. Hence, he says, this product will be true in all cases, whatever may be the values of a , or c ; and it must be true when a and c are equal to nothing, in which case $a - b$ and $c - d$ become $-b$ and $-d$. Consequently $-b$ multiplied into $-d$ will produce $+bd$. But the baron will not allow that a and c can be supposed equal to nothing; and it is incumbent on the students of this branch of the mathematics, to examine with attention the remarks of a person of such distinguished eminence in their science.

PHILOLOGY.

L' Art de parler et d'écrire correctement la Langue Françoisé, ou Nouvelle Grammaire Raisonnée de cette Langue, à l'usage des Etrangers qui désirent d'en connoître à fond les Principes et le Génie. Par M. l'Abbé de Lévizac. A Londres.

The Art of speaking and writing the French Tongue correctly; or a new critical Grammar of that Language, for the Use of Foreigners who wish to be completely acquainted with its Principles and its Genius. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Dulau. 1797.

We do not agree with the emigrant teacher to whom we are indebted for this work, in thinking that the difficulty of learning to speak French well is greater than that which attends the acquisition of any other European language: but, though we are inclined to believe that he aggravates the difficulties of the study, to render his efforts for the removal of them the more conspicuous, we allow that the delicacies and refinements of the French tongue are less easily acquired than many persons suppose, who consider themselves as fully acquainted with it if they can develop the sense of a novel, or hold a desultory discourse without much perplexity or hesitation.

The present volume contains only the first part of the author's philological plan. It treats of grammar, properly so called.

The abbé begins with the noun; but he does not dwell long upon it. The article forms the next subject; and the places where

it ought to be used, and where it is unnecessary, are properly discriminated.

Some of his remarks concerning adjectives do not appear to us to be just. Instead of particularising every instance of this kind, we shall only refer to one. Vaugelas has recommended an omission of *de* between *quelque chose* and an adjective which is followed by the same preposition. The repetition of *de*, he says, would give a harshness to the sentence; and he therefore sanctions the phrase *quelque chose digne de sa naissance*. But, says M. de Lévizac, is harshness of sound a sufficient reason for giving way to a real fault? Certainly not; but the fact is, that no fault is committed. It does not follow, because *de* is usually introduced between *quelque chose* and an adjective (as, *quelque chose de nouveau*), that *quelque chose digne* is an erroneous phrase: on the contrary, it is more grammatically accurate than the ordinary phrase.

The abbé d'Olivet is quoted with approbation by our author, as controverting the propriety of the decisions of Vaugelas and the French academy, with regard to the use of the pronoun *soi* in a plural import. *Soi*, indeed, ought to be confined to a singular construction.

The observations of M. de Lévizac upon pronouns are for the most part just; and he has carefully examined the forms and the uses of the verb. In analysing this part of speech, and also on other occasions, he attacks the rules and the opinions of Holder and other grammarians, sometimes with decisive success.

He gives good rules for the use of the participle of past time; in those points concerning which the best writers differ. He treats of prepositions, conjunctions, &c. with perspicuity and precision; illustrates by examples the proper use of the figures of speech; and, to various errors of construction, applies a critical emendation.

A New Italian Grammar, in English and Italian, on a Plan different from any hitherto published, &c. By Gaetano Ravizzotti. Small 8vo. 6s. Boards. Myers. 1797.

Signor Ravizzotti alleges the insufficiency of former grammars of the Italian language for the purpose for which they were compiled; and this inadequacy (he says) 'arises partly from *deficiency*, and partly from *many things* in them having become *obsolete*.' There certainly is reason to complain of *deficiencies* in every Italian grammar; but, in the *recent* works of that kind, *few things* may be supposed to have become *obsolete*.

In treating of what he styles 'the *right regular* pronunciation,' the author omits a representation of the sound of *gn*, and refers to a good teacher for it: but he might easily have given an adequate idea of it by intimating, that *agnello* is pronounced *anyello*, the *y* being sounded as in our word *year*. He copiously, and in general not inaccurately, explains the uses and constructions of the different parts of speech; particularly the verb and the pronoun.

Where he speaks of the demonstrative pronouns, we were surprised at his remarking, that, 'for greater *elegance*, we say in Italian, *stamattina, stasera, stanotte*, for this morning, to-night, or this evening, instead of *questa mattina*, &c.' He should rather have condemned those abbreviations as corrupt and improper, than have recommended them as elegant.

In the second division of his work, he offers 'grammatical observations on prose and poetry,' which the student may peruse with advantage. In the two following parts, he gives a multifarious vocabulary, a collection of complimentary and other phrases, some dialogues, and proverbs.

The fifth part consists of 'selected extracts of Italian poetry.' A sonnet written by Milton is here introduced, and we also observe one by Margaret of Valois; but it would have been better, we think, to have confined the extracts to the productions of natives of Italy. We may add, that the quotations are not well translated into English.

A mythological dictionary forms the sixth part; but it is too long for an appendage to a grammar. It is given both in Italian and English; as are also the two last divisions of the work, which are, an introduction to geography, and miscellaneous extracts in prose. Upon the whole, this performance, though in some respects too diffuse, and in others defective, may be recommended as very useful to the learner of the Italian language.

P O E T R Y.

The Sea-Side, a Poem, in a Series of familiar Epistles, from Mr. Simkin Slenderwit, summerising at Ramsgate, to his dear Mother in Town. Small Folio. 1797.

Of the numerous imitators of Mr. Anstey's Bath Guide, we think Mr. Simkin Slenderwit not the least successful. He exhibits much humour and quaintness of observation, in a galloping kind of poetry suitable to the subject. His occasional inattention to the rhyme is reprehensible, as it arises more from negligence than from want of power.

Part of a morning scene at Ramsgate is thus sketched:

' ————— next morning we rose,
Shav'd, dress'd, and both put on a good suit of clothes;
Then went before breakfast, an hour, or more,
Fresh air to inhale, on the sea-pickled shore.
There we met half-cloth'd beaux, and fine ladies unlac'd,
All to soufe for their health in the ocean in haste;
O! what fidget and wriggle to get a machine,
Such a bustle, dear mother, sure never was seen:
"Miss Nash, are you ready?" "Yes ladies, this way."
"Have you taken some towels?" "O, yes ma'am,
come pray."

" I declare Mrs. Fish, I don't know what's the matter,
 But I always dread vastly to plunge in the water :
 The faculty tell me 'tis good for my nerves,
 And sure no complaint such attention deserves :
 Without nerves, one's unfit for life's gayer routine,
 Without nerves, one in public should never be seen ;
 Strong nerves kill the vapours and vanquish the spleen :
 For my nerves, then, my dear Mrs. Fish, I resort here,
 And hope to return with the nerves of a porter."

" What a clatter 'bout nerves !" cries a Jemmy in
 trowsers,

" 'Tis distraction, *par tout*, to be bor'd with these fousers ;
 Because 'tis the fashion, I bathe every morning ;
 Besides, all day after it keeps me from yawning." P. 4.

A preference is given to Ramsgate over other bathing-places in
 the following strain of irony :

' Let numbers to Scarb'rough each summer go down,
 And boast that they travel a great way from town :
 Let many to Weymouth with rapture repair,
 So proud in the smile of the worthy old pair :
 Let others with pleasure and gratitude boast
 Of the sweet pretty seaports on Devon's fair coast :
 Let Brighton still brag her adorable Steyne,
 Her downs so salubrious, her billow-toss'd scene :
 Let Hastings her tribute of favour demand
 For the sea-temper'd breezes that fan her smooth sand :
 Yet Hastings, alas ! is a fishing town still,
 Let them tell of her beauties whatever they will.

' Let shopkeepers yearly to Margate repair,
 And boast that they meet with good company there,
 Of her town and her rooms and her excellent fish
 And ev'ry thing charming a mortal can wish :
 Let those sing their praises of Broadstairs aloud .
 Who come for snug bathing and shrink from a crowd :
 Yet for elegant whim, philosophical ease,
 Pure taste to delight and chaste fancy to please,
 For patterns of fashion, gentility, birth,
 For the union proverbial of wisdom and mirth,
 For a classical charm and a manner divine,
 Both the health to restore and the soul to refine,
 O ! Ramsgate ! the credit, the glory, be thine !" P. 47. }

*A Tribute to the Manes of unfortunate Poets : in four Cantos. With
 other Poems on various Subjects. By John Hunter, Esq. 12mo.
 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies, 1798.*

Mr. Hunter has composed his Tribute in eight-syllable verse,
 of all our English metres the most unfit for serious poetry. How
 he has succeeded, the reader may judge from our extract.

' I hate the critic's rigid art,
 That stints the transports of the heart,
 That will unfeeling exclude
 The verse as false, the thought as rude,
 That deviates from the narrow rules
 And frigid theories of schools.
 O! give me one whose genius free
 His timid bondsman scorns to be,
 Who nobly ranges uncontroul'd,
 Like Camoens artless, wild and bold.
 Let the grim monster that arose
 De Gama's squadron to oppose,
 Towering like Ide, with threatening mien,
 Excite the sickening critic's spleen,
 I dwell with rapture on the line,
 And dare to call the theme divine.

' Ye pigmy bards! whose little all
 Is rhæbus, song, and madrigal,
 Well may you as you ken his flight,
 Turn giddy at the wond'rous height;
 As one, whose eyes, with daring view,
 The bird of paradise pursue,
 Will shut them as he higher flies,
 Daz'd by the splendour of the skies:

' Alas! how oft we find below,
 Protracted life, protracted woe.
 Did the impetuous waves regard
 The life of valiant Gama's bard,
 But to reserve him to oppose
 Severer conflicts, bitterer foes?
 But though the wind and raging main,
 Fortune's fair gifts and labour's gain
 O'erwhelm'd; the raging main and wind
 Could not affect his godlike mind.
 Not from the heavy clods of earth,
 His lofty genius drew its birth:
 From heavenly climes and angel quires,
 Descended his poetic fires,
 And ever burn'd serenely bright,
 Like orient suns, or vestal light.' P. 56.

On this passage we must remark that the name of Camoens should be accented on the middle syllable, that the contraction of Ida into Ide is unpleasant, and that *daz'd* is awkwardly forged instead of *dazzled*. The applause bestowed upon Camoens discovers little taste or discrimination. The poems which accompany the Tribute betray the same mediocrity of talent. The Fragment, an attempt at a higher order of poetry, is feeble and dilated; and the other pieces are trifling lines upon trifling subjects. To justify

our censure, we subjoin the last sonnet, of which the morality and poetry may speak for themselves.

‘ In a rude storm of thunder and of rain,
With aspect horrible, see Winter come.
Keen is the air and ruffet is the plain,
Solid the stream, and wither’d Nature’s bloom:
Shut, shut the door, and thro’ the chilly room
Let kindling wood a cheerful warmth inspire;
Draw near your chair, and dissipate the gloom
With lively converse, and with genial fire,
And let the bottle pass with honest glee,
At every glass your spirits mounting high’r,
Or dance a gentle damsel on your knee,
Whose looks oppose her struggles to retire.
If wisely thus you buxom pleasure court,
The longest evening shall appear too short.’ P. 178.

An Epistle to a Friend, with other Poems. By the Author of the Pleasures of Memory. 4to. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

Like the other productions of Mr. Rogers, this epistle is polished and elegant. The images are such as every reader will recollect with pleasure.

‘ Still must my partial pencil love to dwell
On the home-prospects of my hermit cell;
The mossy pales that skirt the orchard-green,
Here hid by shrub-wood, there by glimpses seen;
And the brown pathway, that, with careless flow,
Sinks, and is lost among the trees below.
Still must it trace (the flattering tints forgive)
Each fleeting charm that bids the landscape live.
Oft o’er the mead, at pleasing distance, pass
Browsing the hedge by fits the pannier’d ass;
The idling shepherd-boy, with rude delight,
Whistling his dog to mark the pebble’s flight;
And in her kerchief blue the cottage-maid,
With brimming pitcher from the shadowy glade.
Far to the south a mountain-vale retires,
Rich in its groves, and glens, and village-spires;
Its upland lawns, and cliffs with foliage hung,
Its wizard-stream, nor nameless nor unsung:
And, thro’ the various year, the various day,
What scenes of glory burst, and melt away!’ P. 10.

The other pieces, in our opinion, are not equal to the epistle. It is a strong metaphor to say that

‘ ————— blue eyes
Gild the calm current of domestic hours.’

The lines to a gnat are too much in the forced stile of Dr. Darwin. Pompous language and pompous images cannot elevate a trifling subject. When we read of whirring wings, dragon scales, and a barbed shaft unsheathing its terrors, and find that this description is applied to a gnat, it reminds us of the language of a riddle.

Thalia to Eliza: a poetical Epistle from the Comic Muse to the Countess of D——. In which various eminent, dramatic, and political Characters are displayed. 8vo. 1s. Richardson. 1798.

Some parts of this poem are not contemptible. There are, however, more attempts at wit than are successful, as our specimen will show.

‘ Ah, poet*, early lov’d, and early lost,
Where art thou? in what whirling eddy tost?
In what gulph whelm’d? Could not that brilliant wit,
Bright as Apollo’s, find a kinder pit
In your own theatre? a fuller hoard
In Wesley’s lockers than the treas’ry board?
What have your ragged Begums done for you,
That the nine sisters could not better do?
Would not Parnassus furnish fresher bays
Than puzzling Windham’s metaphysic maze?
What from Dundas’s temples can you tear,
But prickles harden’d in north British air?
A trophy dearly bought, of which posselt,
You find it but a thistle at the best.
Turn, turn to me! of the Pierian spring
Drink yet again, and stretch your soaring wing!
Of many, ah! too many, tho’ bereft,
Still has your cause some stout supporters left.
Jordan, be sure, to do your muse a grace,
Wou’d cease her labours for the Brunswick race,
Proud for your brow the laurel wreath to twine,
Lop off one hero from the royal line;
And she is nature’s own.—I found her such,
Nor marr’d the copy by a single touch,
The finish’d work such high perfection bore,
Art cou’d add nothing, Nature give no more.’ P. 24.

N O V E L S.

Cinthelia, or, a Woman of Ten Thousand. By George Walker,
Author of *Theodore Cyphon*, &c. 4 Vols. 12mo. 14s.
sewed. Crosby. 1797.

The heroine of this novel, disappointed in her first love, accepts

* Sheridan.

the hand of Mobile, who, though a tradesman's son, entertains a great contempt for commerce. Soon after marriage, he neglects and ill-treats her; but she submits to her fate with exemplary patience. His fortune, though at first considerable, cannot support the life of dissipation which he leads; and, as his circumstances become embarrassed, the irritability of his temper increases. Cinthelia, however, continues to manifest a prudent resignation. When her husband's fortune has been consumed by his extravagance, he is taken into her father's house; but he is unwilling to relinquish his profligate habits. He at length enlists as a private in a regiment which is on the point of embarking for America. He resolves to take Cinthelia with him; and she consents to accompany him, leaving her children in England. She meets with a variety of misfortunes, under which she experiences the greatest consolation, from the circumstance of having regained the affection of Mobile, who becomes a reformed husband. He does not long survive his return to Great Britain; and the widow then marries a person whom she had before refused.

The conclusion of the work will indicate the moral of it.

'Cinthelia exhibited, in every situation, the perfection of the female character, so far as human nature can ascend, and though her fortune was to traverse, at an early period, through the most rugged paths of life, with a companion that added distresses to the way, by taking DUTY for her guide, she was never without internal satisfaction, and never could reproach herself with meriting the misfortunes she experienced.' Vol. iv. p. 273.

We meet with pleasing and interesting passages in this novel; and some knowledge of the world is manifested by the writer; but various parts of the performance are frivolous, and it is degraded by the general inaccuracy of the diction.

Anecdotes of two well-known Families. Written by a Descendant; and dedicated to the first female Pen in England. Prepared for the Press by Mrs. Parsons, Author of an old Friend with a new Face, &c. 3 Vols. 12mo. 19s. 6d. sewed. Longman. 1798.

The outline of this story is said to have been sent to the editor by some unknown friend. Whether this statement is true or false, is of little consequence to the public. The story itself is interesting; but the interest becomes weaker after the first volume.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

Fragments: in the Manner of Sterne. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Debbrett. 1797.

Among the many attempts in imitation of Sterne, these fragments have as great a resemblance to the original as any that we have yet seen. We are particularly pleased with the *Gentoo* story.

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B b

It is well written, interesting, and pathetic. The following extract will, we think, convey a favourable idea of the success of the author in his imitations, and justify our commendation of his work.

‘ —An’ please your honour—quoth Trim—I think it would be much kinder, to leave them alone;—they cannot be more than happy!—I am no parson,—but I should think, your honour, that God takes a peaceful life as the best part of religion.—— But Trim—quoth my uncle Toby—it is to spread the light of the gospel!—The gospel, an’ please your honour—cannot do more than make them harmless and happy:—and besides, as they are, your honour, they are not selfish;—they think every thing has a right to live, as well as themselves—and that’s more than many a Christian can say, an’ please your honour.——If we may judge, Trim—quoth my uncle Toby, (with a look of timid presumption)—I should think it must be pleasing to the kind Being who made us—to see the lowest of his creatures respected as a part of his workmanship!——

‘ An’ please your honour—said Trim—I think there’s more fuss, than honesty, in such an expedition;—it’s more for the look, your honour, than the thing itself.——

‘ It is out of our power, Trim—quoth my uncle Toby—to fathom any heart but our own;—it may arise from a goodness of intent—and generosity of feeling——as they conceive the light of the gospel, Trim, as the only light of happiness.——

‘ And does your honour think—quoth Trim, (with a look upwards)—that such a wise commander would throw all succour into a little corner of the world,—while he left open the greater part of his works unsheltered and undefended?—An’ please your honour, it would be like dismounting the cannon from a citadel—to defend a sentry-box.

‘ I do think, Trim—quoth my uncle Toby—that we should review our own conscience, and the conscience of those about us—repair the works and raise the mounds of religion within ourselves—before we venture into the territories of Innocence and Simplicity.——

‘ They are better able to teach us, an’ please your honour—than we them!——For I should think peace and good-will to one another—is better than a sermon from the archbishop of Canterbury himself.——

‘ Peace and good-will is the real spirit of religion, Trim—quoth my uncle Toby;—and, if generally practised—we should have little to fear from the outward attacks of an enemy, or the inward ones of our own reflections.——I think—quoth Trim—that we read enough of old times—and see enough in the present—to make us leave off troubling our heads about other people’s opinions and religion;—let every one pray as he likes!—An’ please your honour, every engineer has his particular notions of fortification, and

the science of defence ;—and, as long as he doesn't point his cannon against the castle of any man,—no one has a right to see into his plans.——An old brother-soldier, who served in India, was telling me——(I'll tell your honour some of his stories, when your honour has leisure to hear them.)——As we are in winter-quarters, Trim—quoth my uncle Toby, (laying his left leg on a chair which was at the side of him)——as we are in winter-quarters, Trim—with a good fire before us——An' please your honour—quoth Trim, interrupting my uncle, (and with a look that changed a smile into an air of sympathy)——how many a brave lad, after a long march up to his knees in snow—would be glad to sit down before it!—his hands so numbed as scarce to feel whether he had a firelock or no!——He should be as welcome, Trim—said my uncle Toby, (his eyes sparkling with generosity)—as though he were commander in chief of the bravest troops in the whole world.——

' My uncle Toby lighted his pipe——Let me hear one of the stories;—come nearer, Trim—said my uncle Toby.——Trim drew a chair opposite to my uncle Toby, and began :——An' please your honour—there was a Gentoo——

' As Trim began, my father opened the parlour door——Now what attack (said he to himself) are those two military noddles planning?——Trim rose up——Sit down, corporal!—said my father, with a twist of his head, and flourish of politeness.——

' My father drew a chair to the fire-side——

' Go on with the story, Trim—quoth my uncle Toby.

' —— There was a Gentoo, an' please your honour—who sat so long in one position, as to give himself a most cruel cramp——Now what does your honour think—continued Trim, (in a tone of the most artless simplicity)—that he cramped himself in such a manner for?——I cannot guess, Trim—quoth my uncle Toby.——He cramped himself so,—an' please your honour——for fear he should kill a fly!——

' The generous blood remembered,—it was so habituated to do so—that it never forgot it,—to fly to the face of my uncle Toby.——Whenever a sentiment, or an action, that did honour to humanity—was said, or done——his blood, ever faithful to his cheek, was sure to rise, and tally it there.

' There's many a man, Trim—quoth my uncle Toby—who is called a social being—that would not give himself half so much trouble to save the life of a fellow-creature.

' An' please your honour—when I tell you the story of this poor soul—it will wring a tear from your honour's eye, and a sigh from your heart.——I beg your honour's pardon for saying "wring;"—for your honour's tear is always ready for the mischance—even of a worm.——

' There was a something that moved my frame with such a sweet

and gentle hand,—when Trim complimented—I would say—when Trim delineated—the real touches of my uncle's humanity,—that I felt an indescribable titillation about my heart-strings— which I would not exchange—for all the laughter in the universe.'
P. 59.

*Recherches sur l'Usage des Radeaux pour une Descente. Par M. . . .
Colonel au Corps de Condé, ci-devant Membre de l'Académie Royale
des Sciences de Paris. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dulau. 1798.*

Inquiries into the Use of Rafts for a Descent.

If the print-shops had not already exposed sufficiently the absurd notion of invading Great-Britain by rafts, the publication of this pamphlet might have been useful in removing the apprehensions of the timid and the ignorant. The writer examines the difficulty of procuring materials for the rafts, the time necessary for their construction, the weight which they could support, the impracticability of moving them by oars or sails, and other particulars; and he employs more science upon the occasion than such a chimæra deserves.

The History of the Reigns of Peter III. and Catharine II. of Russia; translated from the French, and enlarged with explanatory Notes and brief Memoirs of illustrious Persons. Vol. I. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cawthorn. 1798.

This translation is not altogether free from Gallic idioms; nor is it always faithful to the sense of the original. The Appendix to the volume contains the history of prince Iwan, extracted from Coxe's Travels; a biographical sketch of count Munich, chiefly borrowed from Busching; anecdotes of Ernest John de Biren, duke of Courland; a sketch of the life of the late king of Poland; the history of Catharine I.; an account of Pugatcheff; and reflections on the short reign of Peter III.—Another volume will complete the work.

Thoughts on different Subjects, chiefly Moral and Political. By R. M. C. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1797.

The subjects discussed in this pamphlet are—'prejudice and the spirit of party'—'the dangers which have lately been supposed to threaten religion'—and 'war.' The author professes not to enter systematically into these subjects, but to give such *thoughts* on them as have incidentally occurred to his mind. We cannot but applaud the moderation with which the work is written. To a sound judgment, the author adds a greater portion of candour than we usually find in temporary publications; and we have no reason to doubt that these are the opinions of one who, with a competent knowledge of the dogmas of each party, has imbibed the prejudices of

none. We shall subjoin a short specimen from his thoughts on war, as it presents a fact which ought never to have been forgotten.

‘ With respect to one motive for war, on which there has been much difference of opinion, I mean the preservation of the balance of power, let us begin its consideration by taking one of the most memorable cases of supposed danger to it, which has happened in modern times, viz. the possession of the crown of Spain falling into the same family with that of France, in the beginning of this century. It would seem, if any confidence can be placed in the principles of politics, in reason, or in human foresight, that this close junction of two such extensive and powerful kingdoms, aided by vast possessions on the continent of America, and in the West Indies, by almost all the gold and silver of the New World, and by numerous forces both by sea and land, must have been fatal to the liberties and independence of almost all Europe. And in fact all Europe seems to have been perfectly convinced of this. In England it seems not to have been doubted that if this event took place, the trade of the nation would be ruined, the queen dethroned, the pretender established, and the protestant religion subverted; and in a vote of the house of lords, an opinion of this kind was expressly declared. In consequence of such universal and undoubted persuasions, a powerful alliance was formed among most of the states of Europe, and England entered deeply into the war. And yet, to the utter confusion of all politicians, and of all human foresight, the so much dreaded event actually took place, in spite of all combinations, and all efforts to prevent it, and the kingdoms of Spain and France were both fixed in the possession of the Bourbon family. And yet the liberties of Europe were not annihilated, the trade of England was not ruined, the queen was neither murdered nor dethroned, nor was popery introduced. And not only did these consequences not ensue from the redoubted family compact, but to the still further disgrace of all human politics, in less than six years after the grandson of Lewis the fourteenth had been acknowledged king of Spain by the peace of Utrecht; France and Spain, far from being leagued together against the liberties of Europe, were actually at war against each other; in which war, England, Holland, and Germany, were in alliance with that very kingdom of France, against which, in the preceding reign, so vast a combination had been formed by these same powers.’ p. 58.

In the preface, the writer promises a continuance of these essays; but we have learned with regret, that death has put an end to his useful labours. He was a physician at Carlisle.

Le Nord Littéraire, Physique, Politique et Morale, Ouvrage Périodique, par le Professeur Olivarius de l'Université de Kiel en Holstein.

The Literature, Philosophy, Politics, and Morals of the North; a periodical Work. Nos. I.—IV. 8vo. 2s. 6d. each Number. Imported by Remnant.

These four numbers contain the annual volume of the present journal, designed to give a view of the literature of the north of Europe, so little known to its more southern inhabitants. Its object is extensive, and the execution, so far as we can judge from the numbers before us, is judicious. The literature of Sweden will compose the fifth number. This journal is not merely confined to a review of books, but comprehends many important articles relative to domestic œconomy, modes of travelling, &c. in the northern regions.

Dissertation on the best Means of maintaining and employing the Poor in Parish Work-houses. Published at the Request of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. By John Mason Good. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Morton. 1798.

This production deserves the approbation which it has received from the society for the encouragement of arts; and we recommend the perusal of it to all who wish either to destroy or improve the present system of laws relative to the poor.

An impartial and comprehensive View of the present State of Great Britain. Containing, 1. the Advantages which we enjoy, and which arise from natural, moral, or political Causes; and have occasioned, or tend to promote, our Strength, Wealth, Health, and Virtue, and Liberty as a Nation. 2. The Disadvantages which we labour under, and which affect our national Strength, Wealth, Health and Virtue, or Liberty. 3. Methods of improving our Advantages, or turning them to the best Account. 4. Methods of removing or mitigating our Disadvantages, particularly for repairing our Finances. With an Appendix, on the present Scarcity of Gold and Silver. By the Rev. G. S. Keith, M. A. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1797.

This is a temperate discussion of many subjects intimately connected with our national credit and prosperity. The author appears to have none of the prejudices which form the two grand divisions of political writers; and he holds no opinions but what have been the result of thought and enquiry. Under the head of the advantages which we enjoy, he reckons our *natural* advantages, viz. insular situation, extent of surface and quality of soil; mines, minerals, &c.; *moral* advantages; a rational, pure, and humane religion, and good civil laws; *political* advantages; a free constitution, and our present state of civilisation. After enquir-

ing into the probable permanency of these advantages, he proceeds to consider our disadvantages, among which he enumerates those which affect the *strength* of the nation, as, pressing of seamen, enlisting foldiers for life, and the game laws; those which affect its *wealth*, as, tithes, poor-rates, corn laws, &c.; those which affect the *health* and *virtue* of the nation, as, prodigality, effeminacy, imprisonment for debt, severity and impolicy of penal laws; those which affect *liberty*, as the unequal representation of the people in parliament, the two acts for the preservation of his majesty's person, and for preventing seditious meetings, oppressive excise laws, and retrospective laws. He also includes among our disadvantages, continental wars, the causes of our wars, their expense, and folly. He then proposes means for turning our advantages to the best account, and for removing the disadvantages which affect our liberty and our national health and virtue, and for repairing our finances. He concludes with an address to the senators and representatives of Great Britain, and sums up the whole of his plan in a kind of allegory, called 'Sketches of the History of John Bull,' which, we think, might have been omitted without any diminution of the utility of the pamphlet. In an Appendix, he offers some observations on the scarcity of gold and silver.

Amidst such a variety of subjects, it may be supposed that some are treated superficially: the usual limits of a pamphlet do not seem adequate to the purpose of doing ample justice to each. The writer, however, has condensed his matter by avoiding repetitions and the usual declamation of political controversy; and, by confining himself to facts and striking reflections, he has been enabled to enlarge where minuteness was requisite, and to collect every necessary document to give strength to his positions. The *enragés* of both parties will disown their obligations to him; but, with the dispassionate and moderate, with those who venerate the constitution in its purity, and desire the return of the nation to its prosperity, he will be found to agree in most essential points, and will be considered as having performed an acceptable service to his country by this publication.

Report of the Committee of the House of Commons, in consequence of the several Motions relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War. Including the whole of the Examinations taken before the Committee; the Correspondence relative to the Exchange of Prisoners; the Instructions of Colonel Tate, &c. &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Wright. 1798.

It is asserted in the resolutions of this committee, that the charge of cruelty towards French prisoners of war, which has been adduced against this country, is utterly destitute of foundation; that it appears to have been fabricated by the rulers of France, with a view of justifying their ill treatment of British prisoners, and of irritating the minds of their countrymen against this nation; and that the British captives confined in France have been treated with

a degree of rigour and inhumanity unwarranted by the established usages of war. From the papers which accompany this report, we see no reason to doubt that the resolutions are strictly just; and we are not sorry that the enquiry was provoked, as the result is so favourable to our national character.

INTIMATIONS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

PERSONS who have any concern in the management of a literary journal, cannot expect to remain undisturbed in the discharge of what they conceive to be their duty, or to be free from occasional contests with the writers of the time, particularly with those whose merits bear an inverse ratio to their vanity and presumption. The 'Suffolk Freeholder' has renewed his attack, in terms not altogether consistent with propriety or decorum. The most important part of his last letter we will transcribe for the entertainment of our readers. 'If you really mean to say, that I do write for money, or from political partiality and obvious prejudice, or to serve the purposes of any party, or that I have any patrons, *in all these cases you are guilty of a direct falsehood*. In this particular instance you best know your own meaning; and, in general, the pamphlet-writing freeholder scruples not to tell the sneering supercilious editor of the Critical Review, that he writes without elegance, criticises without candour, quotes without fidelity, asserts without truth, is scurrilous without wit, and insolent, he has no doubt, without spirit.' Such are the multiplied charges adduced against the obnoxious editor; but, while he is exposed to assaults so vehement, he consoles himself with the consideration of the facility with which they may be repelled. The first charge (that of falsehood), being repeated in the subsequent series of imputations, will more properly be obviated in the sequel. The editor, it is affirmed, 'writes without elegance;' but it may be observed in answer, that the Freeholder is far from being a competent judge of that point, as his different publications abundantly prove. The charge of a want of candour may be invalidated by remarking, that it is only urged by those who are disappointed of that praise to which they have no pretensions; and the circumstance which occasioned the mention of a neglect of faithful quotation, has been already explained. The next accusation is of a more serious nature, as it relates to a supposed violation of truth, that moral obligation which the writer of this reply has ever been scrupulously disposed to observe. It is no proof of falsehood of assertion, that the editor has accused the Freeholder of giving way to the effusions of political partiality and the dictates of obvious prejudice, as the pamphlets of that gentleman evince the truth of the remark. In support of the imputation of scurrility, no just allegations can be brought forward; and, as genuine wit is not only a rare quality, but one of which a literary censor might be tempted to make a sinister use, a deficiency of it will not be considered as culpable. With regard to the charge of insolence, the editor may confidently disclaim it, and retort it upon his fierce assailant; and he may add, that, from no part of his behaviour in this contest, can a want of spirit be presumed.

In answer to X. D. we may state, that we have received a copy of the Refuge, and that it is under consideration.

We return thanks for the critique (sent from Carlisle) upon a work published at Newcastle, under the title of 'A General View of the Agriculture of the County of Northumberland;' but we beg leave to decline the unsolicited communications of unknown critics.

